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UNITED SERVICE MAGAZINE.

EUROPEAN SHIPS OF WAR.*

The book which we propose to review briefly in this paper is, undoubtedly, the best compilation which has yet appeared in English on the subject of war-ship construction in Europe. Its only rivals are to be found in the works published, during the last five or six years, by members of the French corps of the *Génie Maritime*, and it can bear comparison with any or all of them. English readers will, for the most part, prefer a book written in their own language, and those familiar with the French language will not fail to recognise an essential difference between the French treatises and the work of Mr. King. The latter is brimful of facts and figures as to the most recent types of ships, as well as the aggregate powers of the various fleets; generalizations, deductions, and expressions of personal opinion are not altogether wanting, but they are subordinate to the facts. On the other hand, a Frenchman can scarcely be expected to confine himself within such narrow limits; his facts are chiefly valued as the basis upon which to erect systems of classification, methods of comparison, tactical hypotheses, or some other ingenious generalization. Such treatises have their value no doubt, but, in our opinion, they are of much less practical importance than the work of Mr. King. His own modest description of the book deserves quotation. "The merits of originality," he says, "cannot be claimed for the contents of this work; they are, in the main, the result of personal observation during European travel in 1875-76, also during two other tours in Europe, one in 1871, and the other in 1873, amounting in all to nearly two years of employment abroad on official duties. . . . While such a compilation of facts as are here collected cannot be esteemed a brilliant achievement, it may prove useful to many persons desiring to be informed of the navies of Europe and matters pertaining to them."

It may appear surprising that we owe such a book to an American rather than an Englishman, especially when it is remembered that ever since the conclusion of the Civil War, the Navy of the United States has been so much neglected, and only kept alive in the most

* Report of Chief Engineer J. W. King (United States Navy) on European Ships of War and their Armament, &c., &c. (Second Edition). Washington Government Printing Office. 1878.

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"hand-to-mouth" fashion. Not a single important invention in war-ship construction has been applied in the United States during that period; no new types of ships have been devised, or perhaps we should say constructed, by the Navy Department, and specimens of the most powerful iron-clad monitors, as well as of the swift-cruiser class, have been allowed to rot upon the stocks. In the midst of this stagnation and apparent indifference, resulting from the refusal of Congress to grant larger supplies for the Navy, the Secretaries for the Navy have had no enviable task. They have, however, consistently followed out a policy to which we owe the books of Mr. King and various other able officers, sending to Europe from time to time gentlemen well qualified to inspect and report upon the steps being taken by other Powers to develope their naval force, and thus keeping abreast in information, although not in execution, of what is being done. Mr. King, for example, had occupied the post of Chief of the Bureau of Steam Engineering for the United States Navy, and when he came to Europe was, doubtless, armed with proper official introductions, which gave him exceptional advantages in obtaining information. His nationality may have helped him also, not because of the traditional capabilities possessed by Americans for acquiring information, but because of the fact that the United States are outside the circle of European competition for naval supremacy, and one is naturally inclined to be more communicative to an outsider than to a possible rival. To whatever causes his success may be attributable, there can be no doubt of its thoroughness; and it is a matter for congratulation to all interested in naval matters that the documents prepared as a Departmental Report have been thrown into book-form, and made accessible to the public. The enterprise of an English firm in issuing a reprint, with notes and corrections, of the first edition, has made Mr. King's book still more accessible, and in naval circles this will be the edition most read, although it is inferior to the second edition which Mr. King has prepared.* We cannot but regret, however, that this English edition has been disfigured, to some extent, by the editorial notes of "An English Naval Architect." Some of these notes are valuable as extensions or corrections of Mr. King's statements with regard to English war-ships, but others are of a distinctly controversial and one-sided nature, tending to mislead a reader not well informed. For example, a *resumé* is given of the discussion recently raised by Mr. Reed respecting the 'Inflexible,' as well as of the Report of the Committee appointed to consider that subject. Anyone who will compare the remarks of the anonymous English editor with the Committee's Report cannot fail to be convinced of the inaccurate rendering given of their main conclusion respecting that ship. It is difficult to understand why such controversial matter was introduced in the form of preface or foot-notes to a book which is so

* "The War Ships of Europe." Griffin & Co.

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singularly fair and impartial in its tone as that of Mr. King; but if a controversy was to be described at all, it surely should have been summarised fairly. To our recommendation of the English edition we would, therefore, append the caution that many of the editorial notes require to be read carefully, and compared with original authorities; and our advice to the publishers, in issuing another edition, would be to exclude the controversial matter, or to deal with it as Mr. King has done in his second edition.

It is interesting to notice how an impartial spectator like Mr. King regards the question of the relative importance and standing of European navies. Englishmen are apt to assert that at the present time we stand unrivalled, but their opinion may be treated as partial and prejudiced; and pessimists are not wanting who assert that our superiority is more apparent than real, although these "prophets of evil" have been comparatively silent of late, in view of the magnificent demonstration that has been made of our naval force. Almost the first words in Mr. King's introduction sufficiently indicate his opinions. He says: "England is in the forefront as the leader and model of all European naval powers. . . . . In London may be found naval attachés of nearly every important nation watching and studying with ceaseless vigilance the principles and science of naval architecture and engineering, especially the newer and later inventions, the experiments in artillery practice, and the progress made every year in the science of warfare." Further on he adds: "It may confidently be asserted that never since the application of steam propulsion to ships of war has the British Navy been relatively so strong as at the present time." Holding these views as the result of a careful personal investigation, it is not surprising to find that Mr. King spent a large part of his time in England, or that he devotes more than one-half of his space to English ships and English naval administration. Coming from so competent and well-informed a critic, it is satisfactory to find this conclusion reached as the result of a searching enquiry.

Unless the book itself be studied, no one can form an opinion of the thoroughness of the descriptions given of all our most important war-ships. It is within the truth to say that no equally exhaustive account has yet been published of the most recent and improved types of armoured and unarmoured ships of the Royal Navy. The bulk of these facts may have been previously published as fragmentary notices in newspapers and journals, but they have never been so systematically summarised and arranged before, and they are here supplemented by facts not previously published, which, it may be presumed, Mr. King obtained from good authorities. To naval officers desirous of possessing a compendious statement of the principal dimensions and characteristic features of the ships of the Royal Navy this book will prove a valuable aid. We are aware that in many quarters exception has been taken to the

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policy of placing in the possession of a foreigner information which English officers cannot obtain respecting our ships, and, in connection with the book under review, one such case has come to our knowledge. An officer of standing was desirous of obtaining particulars of some vessel yet incomplete, but failed to obtain them from any official publication, and was giving up the search as hopeless, when the English edition of Mr. King's book appeared and solved the difficulty. How far this difficulty in obtaining information may be real or imaginary, we cannot pretend to say; it scarcely appears possible that the assertion can be well-founded that information is denied on application by a British officer which is given to a foreign *attaché*. But, whatever the past may have been, it will be generally agreed that in the future the greater the facilities which can be afforded to naval men for increasing their knowledge of the structural arrangements, powers of offence and defence, &c., of the ships in which they may have to serve, the better it will be for the Service. It would be out of place to endeavour to prescribe a means of doing this, and of adding similar information respecting foreign ships, but we cannot forbear the expression of an opinion that nothing but good would result from the establishment of a semi-official *Naval Review*, similar in its main features to the *Revue Maritime* of the French Navy, or the *Rivista Marittima* of the Italian Navy, or the corresponding works issued in Germany and Russia. There is no lack of talent among the officers of the Royal Navy to keep such a publication alive, nor do we think there would be any lack of readers in the Service. On all sides one meets with the expression of wants which would be well met by such a publication.

Other European navies receive but brief notices from Mr. King, but these notices are valuable and instructive. Glancing through them one gains an insight not merely into the actual force at the disposal of each Power, but also into the character and tendencies of their various systems of construction. Both these features are important. In these days of short, sharp warfare, much depends upon readiness for prompt action. A numerous fleet can be of little service if it has fallen out of repair; a powerful ironclad with worn-out boilers is of little use. Watchfulness and proper repairs, with the provision of a sufficient reserve, are essential to the maintenance of an efficient and really powerful fleet. Nor is it less important to provide for the future, as well as for present wants or immediate contingencies. New types must be laid down to supplement or take the place of existing ships. Progress in armour, guns, torpedoes, and other features of construction or armament continually relegate to a lower class vessels which at the outset stood in the first rank. The common mode of expressing this change is to say that these vessels have become "obsolete," but the term is certainly misapplied. Take, for example, H.M.S. 'Warrior,' our earliest sea-going iron-clad. When first built, and

for some years, she was fairly classed as a first-rate or line-of-battle ship. Some ten years ago she practically fell out of this category, and took a lower rank, but still was capable of useful work. Nor is she obsolete, in the sense of being useless, at the present time. She is a magnificent steamer, a good performer under sail, more than a match for any unarmoured ship, and quite capable of meeting the majority of foreign iron-clads which are available for service on distant stations. Such a vessel might in time of war prove of the greatest value, and the long life-time of an iron-hulled vessel like the 'Warrior' is an unmixed advantage. Mr. King does not say quite so much as this, but he remarks upon her steaming powers, and says also: "It is worthy of note that, while the first productions of all nations of wooden hulls clad in armour have gone to decay, the iron hull of the 'Warrior,' now seventeen years old, presents no sign of deterioration." In this particular the British Navy gains vastly upon the French, for whereas from the first our constructors used iron chiefly, and wood only as a makeshift, the French used wood almost exclusively up to 1870, and so lately as 1873, according to Mr. King. "The only sea-going armoured ships in service built of other materials than wood were *three* in number." Since the conclusion of the war with Germany, the French have entirely changed their practice, using wood hulls but rarely, and building largely in iron and steel. In fairness, we must add that in the use of steel the French actually showed English ship-builders the way to their present practice, having profited greatly, no doubt, from the previous experience and experiments of English builders. The credit is, in fact, due chiefly to the French metallurgists, who have thus repaid something of the debt they owed to their English rivals.

Following the detailed descriptions given by Mr. King, let us briefly glance at the various types of first-class armoured ships which have found favour with different navies. The famous 'Inflexible' represents the English type of "central citadel" ship. Her vertical armour is concentrated on a citadel 110 feet long, which contains the two turrets, the funnels, and all necessary openings into the engine and boiler rooms, as well as the means of access to the other internal spaces. The vertical walls of armour extend about 6 feet under water, the maximum thickness of iron plates being 24 inches. Before and abaft the citadel there is an under-water deck, covered with 3 inches of iron; and upon this deck, which is about 7 feet under water, are erected the chambers packed with cork, &c., which are designed to assist in preserving the buoyancy and stability of the ship when her unarmoured ends are shot through or damaged in action. As means of offence, the vessel is armed with four 80-ton guns, two in each turret, protected by 18 inches of armour; she has also an armament of Whitehead torpedoes and a powerful ram-bow. She is 320 feet long and 75 feet broad, and when complete will weigh about 11,500 tons. Her speed is intended

to be fourteen knots per hour. Her cost will probably amount to nearly £600,000, exclusive of armament and outfit.

The Italians have, during the last five or six years, emerged from their comparatively obscure position as naval constructors, and embarked on enterprises of the greatest magnitude. Adopting from English naval architects the idea of the central-citadel type, they proceeded to give effect to it even before the 'Inflexible' was begun. In fact, the latter ship is the English reply to the Italian commencement of two central citadel vessels, the 'Duilio' and 'Dandolo.' These vessels resemble the 'Inflexible' in many features, but differ in dimensions and some other important particulars. They are 340 feet long, 64¾ feet broad, and when complete are to weigh 10,400 tons. On the citadel the armour is to consist of steel plates nearly 22 inches thick; on the turrets it is rather less than 18 inches thick. Each turret is to contain two 100-ton guns, the most powerful weapons yet made. Provision is also made for Whitehead torpedoes and for ramming. The estimated cost of each ship is about £590,000, exclusive of armament and outfit.

This central-citadel system differs from the "belt and battery" system which prevailed for so many years, chiefly in the substitution of the horizontal underwater deck, before and abaft the battery, for the water-line "belt" of armour which commonly reached from five or six feet under water to a rather less distance above water. The under-water deck is undoubtedly a better protection to the parts of a ship lying below it, than is the water-line belt of vertical armour to the extremities: for it is the general practice to thin the belt-armour greatly towards the extremities, and trust to the probable obliquity of impact of projectiles. On the other hand, the use of the under-water deck gives up to easy damage by light guns the upper works of a central citadel ship: and thus, without precautions of some kind, a serious loss of buoyancy and stability might be entailed after an action. Mr. Reed (Ex-Chief Constructor of the Navy) who was one of the first to propose central-citadel ships, favoured and still favours the adoption of such a length and form of citadel as will enable the *armour-protected* portions of the ship to keep her afloat and stable, without any assistance from the unarmoured ends situated above the under-water deck. The Italians, however, did not adopt this principle in the 'Duilio' and 'Dandolo,' but made their ships partially dependant upon cellullar construction in the unarmoured ends for buoyancy and stability, thus giving practical effect to the recommendation of the English Committee on Designs for War-ships, which in 1871 investigated into the loss of H.M.S. 'Captain,' and other important matters relating to the Royal Navy. The 'Inflexible' comes intermediately between Mr. Reed's ideal and the Italian ships, for she depends less than they do upon her cellular sub-division and cork-packing in the unarmoured ends to

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assist the citadel in giving *stability*; and she can depend entirely for her *buoyancy* upon the citadel and the portions lying below the armoured deck. Mr. Reed is naturally not satisfied with this departure from the principle which he approves, but the balance of authority and opinion is decidedly against him. The opinion is in fact gaining ground that while the vital parts of a ship—her engines, boilers, magazines, machinery for working guns, &c.—should be placed under the protection of armour, that armour may, with advantage, be associated with light cellular protection and structures of cork, or other light material, which are *easily penetrable but slowly destructible.* The use of armour plating for the protection of the water-line region is, in fact, showing signs of dying out; and, still further, horizontal armour is to a great extent being substituted for vertical armour. It is urged, and with some show of reason, that these changes favour increased powers of offence and defence if the existing sizes of first-class ships are maintainsd, or that their adoption may lead to a decrease in the size and cost of battle-ships. Nothing but extensive and costly experiments, or the test of actual warfare, can place this matter beyond the bounds of controversy. Mr. Reed, and those with him, regard it as a matter of probability that rapid disintegration and destruction may be inflicted upon these cellular-packed spaces by shell fire. On the other side there is a great weight of opinion, including that of some of the most experienced artillerists in England and on the Continent, that the chances of serious damage to these cellullar protections are extremely small. We do not disguise the fact that our own opinion agrees with that of the latter class; and we fully expect to see considerable advances made in this direction before many years have passed. Throughout the ironclad reconstruction, the teachings of experience and of actual naval warfare have been of little assistance. Progress has chiefly been made upon the lines suggested by naval officers and naval architects who have studied the problem carefully. Experiments have been made, it is true, to test the relative powers of armour and guns, but these experiments have not largely influenced construction. Hence, if the new venture is made on the grounds of limited experiments and experience in artillery fire, there will be no novelty of procedure. At the same time, we would not be supposed to argue in favour of making no further experiments on cellular structures, for from them much must be learnt that will be of value to all maritime Powers.

The Italians have been so much impressed by the advantages of cellular protection and an under-water deck, they they have undertaken, without any test-experiments, the construction of two monster war-ships which, at present, stand alone in magnitude and type. They are named the 'Italia' and 'Lepanto.' Their length is 400 feet, extreme breadth nearly seventy-four feet, total

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weight about 13,500 tons. It is proposed to supply engines developing 18,000 horse-power, and it is hoped to attain a speed of sixteen knots per hour. The description which Mr. King gives of the general features of these vessels will no doubt be interesting:—"Two longitudinal bulkheads extend from stem to stern, and the ship is divided by means of these and transverse bulkheads into fifty-three water-tight compartments, forty of the latter being above the double bottom of the vessel, three in the rear, and ten forward of it. These compartments are again divided horizontally by four water-tight decks. Of these the lowest, which is to be armoured with iron three inches thick, is about eight feet two inches below the water-line; the second five feet above the line of flotation; the battery deck fourteen feet nine inches, and the upper deck twenty-one feet four inches above the water-line. On the upper deck stands an armoured redoubt, of oval form, its longer axis being at an angle of twenty degrees to the keel, and within it will be the turrets containing the guns . . . . The lower smoke-pipes (funnels), and also the tubes up which the ammunition is passed from the magazine to the redoubt, will be armoured." Mr. King appears to think that there will be some side armour "extending from the deck below to the first deck above the water." But a later French account gives the following particulars of the system of protection, and is probably nearer the truth. "Between these two decks (next above and next below the water-line) are compartments filled with cork; to this space the armour-belt exactly corresponds, but there is *no mention of side-armour.*" This French account is based upon an Italian authority, and according to it the guns are to be 100 tons in weight, and will be fought *en barbette* over the wall of the oval redoubt, being mounted on turntables. It will be seen, therefore, that the Italians have boldly entered upon the course sketched above. The use of vertical armour is minimised, horizontal armour protects the vitals, cellular sub-division and packing are trusted to protect the water-line region, the gun-machinery is protected by the redoubt, the guns are left unsheltered by armour, and between the submerged armour deck and the redoubt there are armoured communications. In all these features there is much promise; but the drawback, and a very serious one to them all, is their embodiment in so huge a vessel as the 'Italia' or her sister. No doubt this large size is a necessary consequence of the conditions laid down for speed and coal supply, but it may fairly be questioned if the limits of manageable size and reasonable cost have not been exceeded in fulfilling the programme. The 'Minotaur' class in the Royal Navy are of equal length, but their total weight is 3,000 tons less than that of the 'Lepanto,' while their speed is only fourteen and a-half knots. The cost of the Italian ship must be at least three-quarters of a million sterling. Truly the policy of "putting all the eggs

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in one basket," has been pushed to extremes, even when allowance is made for the minute sub-division, and the other means for increasing safety that have been provided. We have no wish to see the Admiralty laying down ships which shall be rivals in size to these Italian monsters. They can, we think, be better met in other ways with less risk. But it is clear that vessels must be provided which can meet them on at least equal terms.

Turning to the French navy we find in their latest types of first-class ironclads less influence of English example than in the Italian fleet. It is perfectly true, as Mr. King says, "that Frenchmen have of late been compelled to assume the attitude of critical observers, if not of careful imitators of other naval powers, and particularly of England." In the structural arrangements of their ships, in the vessels for coast-defence and in the swift cruiser classes the influence of English example is more clearly seen than in the designs of seagoing armoured ships of the largest class; and it is but fair to add that in no particular are the French designers servile copyists. Take, for instance, their 'Devastation' and 'Foudroyant,' now in course of construction. According to Mr. King these vessels are about 370 feet long, sixty-six and a-half feet broad, and weigh when complete 9,600 tons. They are to steam fourteen knots per hour, have a maximum thickness of armour of fifteen inches, and will be armed with forty-six-ton guns mounted on the corners of a central battery, and worked by hydraulic machinery. The French still cling to the central battery and water-line belt, and have neither ventured on the adoption of the central citadel type nor the turret system of armament in sea-going ships. On the other hand, they have for many years past shown the way in the use of heavy guns mounted *en barbette*, and having a large horizontal range of fire. To English judgments they appear to have carried this system to extremes, for in many vessels powerful guns are mounted in such a way that not merely the guns, but the crews and the turntables and appliances for working the guns, are left practically unprotected in close action this will involve serious disadvantages.

The 'Temeraire' is the only English ironclad yet armed on the barbette system, but in her case, as is well-known, the armoured towers protect the mechanical appliances for working the guns, the crews, and the guns themselves, except at the instant when they are raised into the firing positions. The French apparently are content to accept greater risks in order to reduce cost, and secure greater simplicity; but most persons would, we think, prefer the 'Temeraire's' armament. It is only necessary to add that in the recent French ships we see exemplified the general law which associates increase of size with increase in thickness of armour and weight of armament. Prior to 1870 only three or four of the French ironclads exceeded 8000 tons in total weight, whereas in the Royal Navy we had several ships of from 9,000 to 10,000 tons.

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The 'Redoutable,' their first creation after the close of the war with Germany, had a total weight of nearly 8,700 tons, and her successors, as we have said, are 1,000 tons heavier still. It is natural under these circumstances some French critics should entertain the opinion that "A return should be made, in displacements of 8,000 tons, to the dimensions of manageable ships, and to a cost such that it will not be necessary to stake our total resources on one or two elements of a problematical success." The advocates of this view have not, as yet, shown how to give it practical effect on ships which could venture to engage these large and powerful vessels which are condemned.

The best attempt to associate moderate size and cost with great powers of offence and defence has been made by Austrian designers in the 'Tegethoff,' a vessel named after the victor of Lissa. She is less than 290 feet in length, 71 feet broad, has a displacement of about 7,400 tons, and an estimated speed of 14 knots. On these moderate dimensions are carried armour 14 inches thick, and a battery completely protecting six 11-inch Krupp guns, probably equal in power, if not superior, to our 25-ton guns. The total cost of this vessel is said by Mr. King to be about £350,000; but this seems an under-estimate, at least it would be if the vessel were British-built. It has been often asked how, in the 'Tegethoff,' such remarkable results can have been obtained on so moderate a displacement. The most probable, and indeed the only explanation which commends itself is that the equipment that will suffice for an Austrian ironclad, designed for Mediterranean service, is much less than would be accepted in an English ship. Naval architects tell us, and with perfect truth, that any saving on the weights to be carried at a speed of fourteen knots, is multiplied twice or thrice in estimating the total saving on hull, engines, coals, &c. Thus, supposing the 'Tegethoff' to have 200 tons less equipment than an English ironclad, she might be of 500 or 600 tons less displacement, and yet be able to steam as fast and as far, with an equal burden of armour. This aspect of equipment is frequently overlooked by amateur designers of war-ships.

One other European Power, which has a rising reputation, attracts attention to its recent work. Germany has made wonderful strides of late in ironclad shipbuilding; but Mr. King is not far wrong in saying that "no originality has yet been exhibited in naval architecture or marine engineering by the German constructors." It is undeniable, however, that in proportion to its numbers, the German Navy, owing to its recent and rapid construction, is one of the most powerful in Europe. Their largest and finest broadside frigate is the 'König Wilhelm,' which rammed and sank her consort the 'Grosser Kurfurst' a short time ago. That unfortunate vessel was an example of their best sea-going turret-ships, and may be most simply described as a

smaller and less powerful 'Monarch,' although some of her armour was thicker than that of the English turret ship. One other type in the German fleet deserves mention, namely, their coast-defence vessels of the 'Sachsen' class. Mr. King gives a capital account of these: one can only find space to say that they are built on the central-citadel principle, are of 7,100 tons displacement, have 8-inch armour, and are armed with five powerful Krupp guns, four of which are mounted *en barbette* at the corners of an open tower, while the fifth and heaviest gun is placed in a turret at the forward end of the citadel. They are designed to draw less than twenty feet of water to fit them for service in the shallow waters on the coast: but they are also capable of meeting heavy weather at sea in case of emergency. The Germans have endeavoured to keep within moderate limits of size and cost in all their recent ships: their largest broadside frigates, designed for them by Mr. Reed, and built in this country, having a total displacement of only 7,500 tons, and costing about £400,000 each. But this moderation in size and cost has left them with 10-inches as their thickest armour, and with 10-inch guns as their general armament. In fact they have no first-class ships, ranking with those recently built in England, France and Italy.

The Turkish Navy holds a high place in the numbers and power of the ironclad ships it contains. Taking their most powerful ship (the sister vessel to that recently purchased by the Admiralty and re-named 'Superb') we find 12-inch armour and a magnificent battery of twelve 18-ton guns carried on a displacement of 9,000 tons. The 'Superb' is undoubtedly a valuable addition to our fleet.

The Russian Navy contains no first-rate armoured ship, except the famous 'Peter the Great,' which is very like H.M.S. 'Dreadnought,' and of about 9,500 tons displacement. Her maximum thickness of armour is 14 inches, and she carries four 40-ton guns in two turrets. Whether she is yet actually completed and fit for service it is difficult to say, very contradictory reports having been circulated respecting her condition. Her case will serve, however, as an illustration of a noteworthy fact in connection with the construction of large ironclad ships. Several years have now elapsed since Mr. Reed, in letters to the *Times*, dwelt upon the then unrivalled powers of the 'Peter the Great;' and he was correct in saying that we then had no ship in construction which could overpower her. But she was then, and for a long while after, only a "paper" ship, not available for actual service. Similarly, any reader of Mr. King's work should carefully distinguish between ships complete and those in construction. Five or six years is no uncommon time for a modern ironclad to be in construction; and, thanks to the great interest attaching to the subject, it is no unusual thing to have detailed accounts of the design of a ship published almost as soon as her keel is laid in a

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dockyard. Now, it is not a universal law that the intentions of a designer are realized in the completed ship: the actual draught of water and displacement are not unfrequently exceeded, the estimated speed is sometimes not reached on trial. Hence it is misleading to argue from a ship in progress, until her actual state is known. Besides which, as was remarked above, the appearance of the names of incomplete ships on a list of a fleet, lends it only a fictitious importance, and leaves its real strength undiscovered.

One remarkable characteristic of the Russian ironclad fleet is its comprehension of so many and such diverse types of ships, the ideas of which were obtained from other navies. Ericsson's type of American monitor has been reproduced: the English 'Prince Albert' and 'Captain' were copied to a large extent: the construction of our 'Devastation' class led to the 'Peter the Great.' But beyond this imitative spirit there has been of late years a spirit of enterprise not rivalled in any other European Navy, and possibly resulting from the exceptional powers entrusted to Admiral Popoff. The circular ironclads may be of doubtful value, but they furnish an interesting study to the professional critic. The belted cruisers of the 'General Admiral' class, gave the key-note to a new system of construction, which has been improved upon by English designers, in the 'Shannon' and 'Nelson' classes of the Royal Navy.

Of the minor European Navies we cannot speak, but refer our readers to the excellent summaries presented in Mr. King's book, for detailed information respecting the ironclads of these and the principal fleets. The exact accuracy of the information given by Mr. King we cannot guarantee; but of the pains that have been taken in in its compilation, and of the excellent sources from which much of it is drawn there can be no question. We must conclude our remarks on armoured ships by a few extracts from the *résumé* which Mr. King has prepared. The grand total of armoured ships yet constructed is said to have an aggregate of 1,060,500 tons; of which the British Navy contains nearly *one-third* (340,000). The French Navy has an aggregate tonnage of 184,000, the Italian of 94,000, the Russian of 89,000, the German of 73,000, and the Turkish of 40,000.

England, it is estimated, has spent considerably more than eighteen millions sterling on iron-clads up to the commencement of the present year; what the total expenditure of European Powers has been it would be difficult to ascertain, but probably fifty millions sterling is not an excessive estimate. The last five years have witnessed greater changes in types of ships, thicknesses of armour, and power of guns, than were witnessed in the fifteen years preceding. In 1873, 12-inch armour and 35-ton guns had been reached from the 4½-inch armour and 4¾-ton guns of 1858. Now we have 80-ton and 100-ton guns, loaded and worked by hydraulic appliances, and armour 24-inches thick.

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Has the end yet been reached? it may be asked. He would be a very bold man who answered, yes. Even the immediate future of war-ship construction is by no means easy to anticipate; and "finality" is out of place here. Amongst the unsolved problems of the present time are the use of steel armour defence against torpedoes, the perfecting of torpedo-attack, the sufficiency or otherwise of the cellular system of protection, and many other matters that might be mentioned if space permitted. But we have lingered too long on the armour-clad ships, and must pass on to the unarmoured vessels, described by Mr. King.

In this department the Royal Navy is unrivalled. For ten years at least we have set the fashion to other fleets. Our swift cruisers have been copied by other nations, or modified to suit their requirements and special armaments. Wooden hulls for unarmoured ships are now amongst things of the past: composite hulls—with iron ribs and wood planking—or sheathed iron ships are now commonly used. Steel, as a material for shipbuilding, bids fair to replace iron, and in H.M.S. 'Iris,' which is steel-built, the Royal Navy has the honour of possessing the fastest sea-going ship in the world. On her recent trials she attained 18½ knots, or 21¼ statute miles per hour. Of the different classes of unarmoured ships, from the gunboat to the swift frigate, there is much to be said which would be interesting, but we must forbear; simply remarking that while the ironclads naturally attract most attention, the bulk of the work of protecting British commerce, and acting as police of the seas, devolves, under ordinary circumstances, upon our unarmoured ships, which are also our best schools for seamanship.

Like a true American, Mr. King is disposed to claim the honour of prior invention or suggestion of many valuable improvements in ship construction for his fellow-countrymen. Into these discussions we have no desire to follow him; but it may be admitted most frankly that we owe one most important class of unarmoured ships to American initiative. The swift cruiser class was commenced in the United States; and our 'Inconstant' was an answer to the challenge of the 'Wamponoag' class. These vessels did not prove successful or give satisfaction, for reasons which need not be specified, and several of them were altered for ordinary service or left to decay on the stocks or in reserve. In the disgust arising from these failures, and the re-action which followed the excitement of the Civil War, the Americans have practically abandoned their own programme, and left England, France, and Italy to carry it to a successful issue.

One most important section in the second edition of Mr. King's Report is that dealing with "torpedo warfare." In it we have descriptions of spar torpedoes, Harvey's and Whitehead's: of the swift torpedo vessels which have established their reputation during the last three or four years; of the various sea-going

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torpedo-vessels that have been constructed; and of the different plans for defending ships against torpedoes. As a careful summary of published facts on this important branch of naval warfare this section may be strongly recommended. We regret that we cannot reproduce some of the more interesting of these facts, as specimens, but we can only refer briefly to the remarkable performances of the torpedo-boats, recently built in England. Boats only 80 or 90 feet long have in smooth water attained speeds of from eighteen to twenty-one knots per hour—speeds which greatly exceed those of the fastest full-sized ships. How are these results obtained? Simply by very skilful construction of the engines, in order to economise weight in proportion to the horse-power developed, and by the use of the locomotive type of boiler. The expenditure of power in proportion to the weight driven is enormous, of course; but it is well repaid. Opinions differ as to the best mode of employing these vessels—whether as adjuncts to a fleet, for the defence of ports, or for independent service. They are not sea-going vessels, and have hulls which are very slightly built, as well as very limited equipments; but they are valuable additions to the naval force, and the eagerness displayed by Russia, France, Italy, and other Powers to obtain such vessels from English builders is the best possible proof of the wisdom of the policy which our Admiralty has pursued of late in increasing our own stock. The manufacture of such boats is peculiarly English, and to Mr. Thorneycroft the honour belongs of showing first of all that the type was a possibility. Prior to the trial of his 'Miranda' the attainment of such high speeds by very small vessels would have been treated as a mere dream.

Of the larger torpedo vessels built up to the present time the German 'Ziethen,' the Russian 'Uzreef,' and the Italian 'Pietro Micca,' are the most notable. The 'Ziethen' is a twin-screw iron steamer fitted to discharge Whitehead torpedoes under water; she is unarmoured, and has a speed of sixteen knots. The Russian vessel 'Uzreef,' is not nearly so large as the 'Ziethen,' but her intended speed is said to be seventeen knots; she also is fitted for Whitehead torpedoes. Her Italian rival is much larger and of very peculiar form; her intended speed was eighteen knots, but this has not been realised as yet, according to reports that have been published.

In the Navy Estimates for the current year appears a "Torpedo Ram" to be built at Chatham, but the particulars of her design have very properly been kept secret hitherto. Our only special torpedo vessel of any size is the 'Vesuvius,' for some years used as an instructional depôt at Portsmouth.

The contents of the volume under review have not yet been indicated fully; nor can we hope to do so before concluding. There are interesting sections dealing with the progress of marine engineering and the use of "compound" engines; others in

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which the important subject of corrosion in marine boilers is discussed; descriptions of various kinds of steering gear, hydraulic apparatus for loading and working heavy guns; details of trials of guns against targets in England and abroad; remarks on the employment of merchant steamers in time of war, &c., &c. If the foregoing remarks should help to make this book better known to naval officers and others interested in naval affairs our purpose will have been served. It is not free from faults, nor can it be assumed to be strictly accurate in all its statements, but it is the best book of its kind with which we are acquainted. The English edition is not equal to the second edition issued in America, but it is well worth study nevertheless.

On nearly every page of the sections treating of Foreign Navies one meets with evidences of the estimation in which English skill and workmanship are held, and of the exceptional position which this country occupies in having private manufactories and shipyards capable of producing the most powerful and improved engines of war. In Great Britain no small proportion of the existing ironclads, other than those of the Royal Navy, have been built. Russia, Turkey, Germany, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Denmark, Holland, Brazil, Chili, Peru, and Japan have all been our customers for ships. The armour plates for many foreign built ships have been made at Sheffield. The 100-ton guns of the 'Duilio' and 'Dandolo,' and the turret guns of the Brazilian ironclads have been manufactured at Elswick and Manchester respectively. Mechanical appliances for working guns are purchased in England even for the French Navy. Our marine engineers furnish the propelling apparatus for a very large proportion of foreign ships; the names of Penn, Maudsley and Humphreys, are familiar all over the Continent. Exception has been taken again and again to the wholesale supply of armaments to possible enemies; but the answer to the objection is conclusive and simple. By means of foreign orders these great private establishments are kept at work; in time of need their whole resources are available for the service of the State; and further, there is often an opportunity of strengthening our own fleets by taking over, in case of need, vessels building for foreign governments.

We shall probably hear less of these objections in face of recent occurrences. When the aspect of affairs in the East was so threatening, it was no small addition which was made to our naval power by the purchase of three new ironclads practically available for service. From the Brazilians we obtained the powerful turret ship 'Independencia,' from the Turks the 'Superb,' and a third ironclad, now the 'Belleisle,' was acquired from owners who had previously bought her from the Turks; while a fourth ship, sister to the 'Belleisle,' but not so far advanced, was also bought. It is not too much to say that in

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no other country could such a speedy and important addition have been made to the naval force; and simply for the reason that England is the great factory for war-ships and their armaments. Her resources in this respect as well as her fleets must be borne in mind in estimating her relative power and position among the maritime nations.

ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF INFANTRY FORMATIONS, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE PRESENT PRUSSIAN COMPANY (*Concluded.*)

By CAPTAIN H. W. L. HIME, R.A.

"La forme et les propriétés de toute ordonnance naissent de la nature et des effets des agents destructeurs."—*Rocquancourt.*

Had the French become involved in an ordinary war, under ordinary circumstances, on the breaking out of the Revolution, there can be little reason to doubt that they would have adopted the formation and tactics of the Seven Years' War with few, if any, modifications. As it happened, the French found themselves face to face with half Europe under circumstances that were well-nigh desperate. They were "without Armies, without Generals;" and what troops they had were "unappointed, undisciplined, mutinous." "Lean, disconsolate over these three grand Armies of Rochambeau, of Lückner, of Lafayette, watching the frontiers there; three flights of long-knecked cranes in moulting time; wrecked, disobedient, disorganized; who never saw fire; the old generals and officers gone across the Rhine."* In the course, not of weeks, but of days, the Army of the Rhine was successively commanded, first by an *ad interim* commander who positively refused to give any orders whatever, and who could be induced to break an obstinate silence by neither entreaties nor menaces; secondly, by an old captain, exchanged from some depôt, whose plan of campaign consisted chiefly in ranging his battalions from right to left in strict accordance with the number of each battalion; and thirdly, by a driveller whose answer to every question was, "qu'il fallait marcher majestueusement et en masse." He himself never marched.† By shooting, hanging, and banishing, these incapables were gradually got rid of, but how were the men to be procured? There was one, and only one method of instantly procuring them in sufficient numbers, and that method was adopted. On the 20th August, 1793, Universal Conscription was introduced into France. But there was neither time nor opportunity to discipline and drill the raw levies. It was therefore necessary to abandon the old tactics. For the leading characteristics of the old tactics,

* Carlyle's "History of the French Revolution," II, 289, 313.

† "Les Institutions Militaires de la France," par M. le Duc d'Aumale, p. 50.

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as I have already said, were the fire and movements of long, rigid, frigid lines; and the movements and fire of long lines required the highest discipline and the most accurate drill. Incapable of fighting in such lines, what order and formation were the French to adopt? As to physique, there was little to choose between the French and their adversaries. In the purely military qualities, such as drill, discipline, &c., the French were very far inferior; but their *morale* was probably better than that of the Germans and English, and in intelligence they were far superior to any troops in Europe. For the Universal Conscription had dragged into the ranks alike the high and the low, the rich and the poor. The average intelligence, therefore, of the French army, which was composed of all ranks of society, was far higher than that of the German and English voluntary armies, which consisted exclusively of the lowest ranks of the people. It was clear then that to ensure success the French must adopt some tactical system which, while it would enable them to derive the fullest advantage from their intellectual superiority, would screen as far as possible their inferiority in drill and discipline. How was this to be compassed?

Although improvements in fire-arms, especially in their ammunition, had undoubtedly taken place since the Seven Years' War, these improvements had not been of such a striking nature as to lead to a reduction in the number of the ranks. Three ranks were everywhere retained, and consequently no reduction worth speaking of took place in the size of the largest fraction which in its most extended formation can be commanded by one mounted officer under fire. Were these fractions to be used, either as constituent parts of some larger fraction, or independently, in their most extended formation, the line, three deep? Certainly not, for this would be a reproduction, in some form or other, of Frederick's formations. The line requires considerable discipline and drill; the column requires less of either than any known formation. The French then must be formed in some column formation. Should the columns be large or small? Small, without doubt; for large, heavy columns would suffer considerably from artillery fire, and would mar and check the natural *élan* of the French. It was evident, then, that the revolutionary troops must fight in some formation in which the use of small columns was a cardinal point. But how to utilise the superior intelligence of the French? The columns, however small, must suffer to a certain extent from the enemy's artillery, and their own fire was a minimum. They could not, therefore, be brought into contact with the enemy until the edge of his fire had been taken off. And how was this to be accomplished? In one way only:—by covering the advance of the columns by a large body of skirmishers. The skirmishing order was the one of all others best adapted to utilise the superior intelligence of the French; it was

admirably suited to their national impetuosity; and it was the only known means of screening the advance of columns.

It was now, for the first time in military history, that light troops took their place as an integral and necessary part of the line of battle. It is true that Greeks had their Psilites, the Romans their Velites, Charles VIII. his francs-archers, and Louis XI. his lansquenets; but light troops had always been looked upon rather as an obnoxious excrescence than as a legitimate part of the Infantry, and military writers were never tired of heaping ridicule and abuse upon them. For instance, Brantôme speaks more in sorrow than in anger of the Spanish skirmishers at the battle of Pavia, 1525,—one of the first occasions on which skirmishers armed with fire-arms played an important part. He complains of "cette confuse et nouvelle forme de combat;" he calls it "une vraye confusion et désordre . . . . contre tout ordre de guerre et ordonnance de bataille;" he describes the Spaniards as "disbandez," and their advance as "sans ordre aucune;" and he describes the French Cavalry as having been driven back by "cette nouvelle mode de combattre, non jamais ouye et fort esmerveillable, cruelle pourtant et misérable."* These whimsical complaints remind one of Hotspur's outburst against gunpowder:

> " . . . . it was great pity, so it was,
> That villainous saltpetre should be digg'd
> Out of the bowels of the harmless earth,
> Which many a good tall fellow hath destroyed
> So cowardly . . . . . ." †

Frederick the Great was decidedly opposed to light troops and all their works; ‡ Lloyd says they are merely to be regarded as scouts "which seldom or never take part in the action; § and Zach, Chief of the Austrian Staff, issued instructions on the subject in 1796, and again in 1800, which are almost ludicrous.‖ But neither abuse nor ridicule could suppress a mode of fighting which was a legitimate consequence of accomplished facts. The American War of Liberation had shown the French the power of skirmishers, in a close country, against troops which clung with mad obstinacy to rigid lines, and in the hour of adversity the French turned the knowledge they had thus gained to good account.

As the word "Regiment" smacked of Royalty, it was abolished in the French service, and the infantry were formed in demi-brigades of three battalions. The battalions were about 800 strong, in nine companies—the largest body of undrilled troops that could be conveniently commanded by one man. In the course of a few years the strength of these battalions was gradually increased to 1,000, and even 1,100, men, and why? In consequence of the greater 'selbstständigkeit' of the battalion, says

* "Œuvres Complètes du Seigneur de Brantôme." Paris, 1822, I., 225.
† Henry IV., I., 3. ‡ "Secret Instructions."
§ "Military Rhapsody," p. 79. ‖ Baring's "Staff College Essays," p. 59.

Rüstow, who darkens counsel with words whenever he can find an opportunity:— in consequence of no such metaphysical figment as 'selbstständigkeit,' but of improved drill and discipline which enabled one man to command a larger fraction, provided it did not exceed certain limits.

To sum up: owing to the absence of any signal improvement in firearms, and the consequent retention of three ranks, no change worth speaking of took place, on the breaking out of the Revolution, in the size of the French battalion, which consisted of 800 men, in nine companies of about eighty-five men each. The Revolution led directly, however, to a new fighting formation—skirmishing order, which eventually produced the most important effects. That these effects were not immediately perceived is not to be wondered at, as for three parts of a century after their establishment skirmishers played a secondary part to the regular troops behind them. The column, or the line, was the reservoir from which the skirmishers proceeded, and by which they were ultimately absorbed; the skirmishers were not the fighting body, *par excellence;* they merely prepared the way for the fighting body—the column, or the line behind them. Being considered, and being in fact, of secondary importance, no special changes were made in their organization. It is true that they were separated in legions, and brigades, and battalions, and companies from the rest of the infantry, but the only differences that ever existed between light infantry battalions, or light companies, and (what they thought fit to consider) the heavy infantry, were the name and some bauble in the shape of a plume or badge. As Napoleon said, "There is, and can be, but one kind of infantry." But from the instant that lateral interval was introduced between the men, the most serious questions arose, *in posse*, if not *in esse*, as to the proper organization of troops which fight in skirmishing order—pre-eminent among these questions being that relating to the size of the largest fraction which can be commanded by one officer under fire. This question will be considered in the proper place.

Ere many years passed over, Napoleon appeared upon the stage of war, and his splendid triumphs with small columns and skirmishers produced the usual effect—men attributed his victories to the formations themselves, instead of to the use he made of the formations, and small columns were, before many years, adopted by all the great Powers, except England.

Of all the nations which fell foul of Napoleon, none suffered more severely than Prussia. The defeat of Jena was so overwhelming, the conditions of the peace of Tilsit were so crushing, that it became necessary to re-organize almost all the departments of the State, and, foremost among them, the military department. The result of this re-organization was, as far as my purpose is concerned, the formation of the infantry in battalions of 1,000

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men on three ranks, the battalion being divided into four companies of 250 men each, officered by four officers. To what was due this increase in the size of the battalion? To its increased 'selbstständigkeit,' answers Rüstow,* who, roused as usual to the highest enthusiasm by the length and sound of this unfortunate word, pours forth upon his unhappy reader a torrent of empty words, occupying over two pages, in order to prove the correctness of the explanation. To my mind, the historian of infantry has confounded cause and effect. The increased 'selbstständigkeit' was due to the increase of size, and not *vice versâ*. In human affairs, phenomena are rarely the effects of simple, single causes, and are almost always produced by the concurrence of several causes. Of the many causes which led to the increase of the Prussian battalion, and the great increase of the Prussian company, the necessity of saving money was undoubtedly one. Overburdened by the exactions of Napoleon and the natural cost of war, Prussia was compelled to accept a cheap army organization, and companies of 250 men, officered by four officers, was the very cheapest organization, compatible with stability. Secondly, a company of 250 men forms a good administrative unit in Prussia, although it certainly would not do so in England, owing to the overwhelming office-work it would entail. Thirdly, after every great war the mania of imitation takes possession of the vanquished and the lookers on, and the dress, drill, and formations of the conquerors are copied with the most servile accuracy. Some ten years after the Seven Years' War, one Pirch, a captain in the French Service, was decorated by the king for devising a new method of dressing a battalion upon its colours.† "Quelques années avant la Révolution," says Duhesme, "on avait poussé la minutie jusqu'à avoir dans les casernes des horloges à balancier et des échelles géométriques gravées sur les pavés pour atteindre le plus grand point de perfection dans la régularité et la cadence du pas."‡ Frederick's men wore pigtails and powder:—the English troops were so scrupulously barbered that the garrison of Gibraltar was tortured into mutiny during the early years of the present century. In 1812, when the new organization was adopted in Prussia, the Prussians were writhing under disastrous reverses, inflicted by an army which fought in small columns, preceded by skirmishers; and they would have been more than mortal had they succeeded in resisting the temptations of the devil of imitation—a fiend to whom the French have completely succumbed since 1870, and who at this moment is at the ear of the English. The French battalion of 1812 was not radically different from that of the Prussians. There was nothing, therefore, to be copied in that direction. The small French company was not to be thought

* "Geschichte der Infanterie," II., 340.
† Jomini, "Hist. Crit. et Mil. des Guerres de la Revolution," I., 214.
‡ "Essai sur l'Infanterie Légère."

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of; it was too costly. But there was no earthly reason why the Prussians should adopt the system of small columns and skirmishers. The brilliant successes of the English in Spain had already proved that the ranks of firm infantry might safely be reduced to two. Why, then, not use the third rank as skirmishers? The Prussian battalion, 1,000 men on three ranks, would thus be reduced to 660 men on two ranks; the company of 250 men, to 160 men on two ranks. Their tactical formation might then consist of lines of battalion-columns of 660 men, half battalion-columns, 330 men, or company-columns of 160 men, preceded by strong bodies of skirmishers, equal in each case to one-half the strength of the column. By this, or by some similar line of reasoning, the Prussians adopted the system of 1812—a system which criticism, overawed by the victories of 1870, has hardly yet dared to scan. Yet, if it be closely and dispassionately examined, it can by no means receive unqualified praise. The Prussians had failed to rid themselves of the cumbrous and antiquated regimental system;* the battalion was glaringly under-officered, and by the indiscriminate use of two and three ranks, the system of drill was needlessly and excessively complicated. But these were minor evils, when compared to the company of 250 men, which carries us back to the Syntagma of the Greek Phalanx. More than a century and a half had elapsed since the close of the Thirty Years' War when this anomalous body was formed, and if any one lesson was taught more clearly than another in every page of the military history of that long period, it was this, that as firearms improve, the battalion —and, for the same reason, every fraction of the battalion—tends to diminish in size. Even granting, for the sake of argument, that firearms had received no sensible improvements between the Seven Years' War and the French Revolution, still they certainly had not deteriorated, and therefore the step from Frederick's company of 120, and division of 150 men to the company of 250 men of 1812 was, historically and tactically, a retrograde step. Whatever may have been the causes which led to the formation of the company of 1812, it was a gigantic anachronism, better suited to the pike-columns of Gustavus Adolphus than to the battalions of Frederick William III. Such, however, was the system which the Prussians thought best adapted for troops armed with a flint-and-steel musket.

How happened it that England stood out single-handed against the column-formation, and reduced the depth of the line to two ranks? Chiefly, if not entirely, owing to the influence of two men, Sir Arthur Wellesley and Sir John Moore.

Sir Arthur Wellesley was sweltering in the plains of India when the first news reached him of the triumphs of the French columns

* Marvellous to relate, Captain May adheres to the Regiment:—"Die Regimenter sind die am bestimmtesten ausgeprägten taktischen Einheiten." "Taktische Rückblicke," 19.

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over the Austrian and Prussian lines. As account after account arrived of the French victories, he exclaimed, "I know we can beat them, if we fight them in line;"* and fear less the successes of the French should induce us to adopt the column formation so wrought upon his mind, that he was smitten with a kind of home-sickness, and in consequence of it was sent to England. Not long afterwards he went to the Peninsula, and his unvarying success proved the truth of his forecast:—"I know we can beat them, if we fight them in line." The lines which Wellesley was destined to lead against the French in Spain would in all probability have been three rank deep but for the exertions of Sir John Moore. Line, two deep, is mentioned, probably for the first time, in Dundas' Drill Book, which was published in 1788. The line was then three deep, and it is directed that the Light Company be drawn up by subdivisions, two deep, in rear of the flanks of the line. Things would have remained in this state heaven knows how long, but for the formation of the Armée d'Angleterre on the heights of Boulogne in 1804. Among the measures for defence to which this apparition gave rise, one of the most important, as it afterwards proved, was the formation of a Division of Exercise at Shorncliffe under Sir John Moore, consisting of the 43rd, 52nd, 70th and 95th Regiments, and some Field Artillery. Here, for the first time in our military history, methodical instruction in skirmishing was given to the troops. The system was, at least in form, the same as that used in the present day, the troops being drawn up in three bodies—skirmishers, supports, and reserves; and the value of the instruction given is best measured by the brilliant services of the Light Division in the Peninsula. But Sir John Moore did not content himself with mere lessons in skirmishing. Convinced that the rapidity and accuracy of the fire of the musket then in use were sufficient to justify him in suppressing the third rank, he formed the division in two ranks.

After this brief statement of facts, which can be easily verified, the reader will be startled to learn from Rüstow† that our knowledge of skirmishing was due to foreign troops whom the Duke of Wellington was compelled to organize in the Peninsula, in order to supply himself with a special light infantry! I should be the last to rob the German Legion of one leaf from the laurels they so honourably won, but the value of their loyal and splendid services is not to be enhanced by perverting history, and assigning to them the dearly-earned honours of the noble Light Division.

To Sir John Moore, then, is due the introduction of a system of skirmishing in the English Army, and the suppression of the third rank. The formation on two ranks did not lead to any very striking change in the size of the battalion, which consisted of about 1000 men, in ten companies of about 100 men each. This was owing

* "Characteristics of the Duke of Wellington," by Earl de Grey.

† II., 333.

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to the fact that the men of the third rank were used to extend the line, which, even with this addition, could be easily commanded by one man.

At about 5 p.m. on the 18th August, 1870, a large body of infantry, unsurpassed in all Europe in physique and unrivalled in drill, might have been seen advancing to the attack of a position of immense natural strength—the village of St. Privat, near Metz. The troops were the infantry of the Prussian Guard, and they were formed in a line of small columns, preceded by skirmishers. Had Lückner, or Rochambeau, or Lafayette risen from the dead, he might have made inquiries as to the state of their flints. But they had no flints, nor had they percussion caps; they had not even ramrods: they were armed, as were the troops they were attacking—with breech-loading rifles. The result of the attack is too well known to be described. In ten minutes 6,000 of the gallant men were lying in the dust, killed or wounded. In one of his posthumous papers, published in the "Oesterreichische Militärische Zeitschrift," the Archduke Charles says:—"When the French Revolution broke out, the want of progressive instruction had influenced every branch of the art of war; hence the Austrian and Prussian troops, which were, in the first instance, opposed to the armies of France, were disposed, armed, and drilled after the models of the Seven Years' War." As a fact, the splendid Prussian Guardsmen who attacked St. Privat on the 18th August, 1870, were formed on the model of the French Revolution! We may be reminded that the Prussians had to discover for us experimentally the best formations for the attack of troops armed with breech-loaders.* I do not grudge the Prussians their glory, nor do I wish to underrate their difficulties; but I must protest against their experiments being held up to us as a model for imitation. It may be urged, too, that the Prussians never afterwards repeated the same mistake, and that their almost unwavering success throughout the war proves how admirably their company is adapted for any species of fighting. It proves nothing of the sort. So great was the disparity between the two nations in other respects, that, in all human probability, the Prussians would have conquered the French in 1870 with even a worse system than their present company system. The Germans beat the French, not *in consequence* of their company system, but *in spite* of it. One thing, at least, is perfectly certain—if the nature of the arm has any influence upon the nature of the formation, one and the same company cannot have been the most suitable formation for the flint musket of 1812 and the breech-loading rifle of 1870.

It need hardly be said that the introduction of the breech-loading rifle was the most important event in the history of war since the invention of firearms. So great was its range, so startling its rapidity, so terrific its precision, that it revolutionised everything.

* "Wellington Prize Essay," p. 142.

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The skirmishers were no longer a secondary force which prepared the way for the fighting line; they at once became *the* fighting line, and the troops behind them became merely the feeders of the skirmishers. But the changes to which we must here confine our attention are—first, the necessary abolition of the second rank; secondly, the permanent introduction of interval between the men; thirdly, the increase of loss in a given time, owing to the precision of the rifle; and fourthly, the increase of noise, owing to the rapid fire of the breech-loader.

The reduction of the second rank, and the permanent introduction of interval between the men, obviously tended to diminish the size of the greatest fraction which can be commanded by one man under fire. The precision of the rifle produced the same tendency. For as no mounted officer can venture to show himself among the skirmishers, the largest fraction that can be commanded by one man must be commanded by a man on foot, and a man on foot cannot command as many men as a man on horseback. Furthermore, owing to the deafening noise produced by the rapid fire of the breech-loader, a dismounted officer's voice can only be heard by the few men immediately round him, except when a lull in the firing occurs. It is perfectly clear that the combined influence of these four changes must necessarily diminish to a very great extent the size of the fraction, but it is by no means so clear how far their influence extends. Even were one to write a book upon it, it would be difficult, perhaps impossible, to settle the question in a perfectly satisfactory manner theoretically; practically the difficulties are by no means insurmountable. Let us adopt, with Scherf, one yard as the normal space occupied by each skirmisher, and let us grant that a man on foot can manage to command men along a front of about fifty yards. If, then, half the company be with the skirmishers and half with the supports, we find the company to consist of about 100 men, or about the same number of men which forms our present companies. There can be no possible difficulty in organising such a company in the admirable manner suggested by Captain Maurice, R.A., in his Wellington Prize Essay. Let there be one corporal to six men; one sergeant to two corporals, and let each corporal be responsible, as far as possible, for "certain six definite men, and each sergeant always for the same twelve."* Then allowing four sergeants to one subaltern, and two subalterns to each company, the company would consist of one captain, two subalterns, eight sergeants, sixteen corporals, and ninety-six men.

It may be said: Surely it was not worth while to go to all this length in order to draw this very common-place conclusion. Common-place as the conclusion may at first sight seem, it appears to me to be one of very high importance; for it proves, if the reasoning upon which it is founded be correct, that the size of our present English company coincides very much more nearly with the

* "Wellington Prize Essay, 60.

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requirements of modern tactics than the celebrated Prussian company. At present its importance is heightened by the fact that a large military party, including the Wellington Prize Essayist, are calling for the introduction of the Prussian company. I cordially agree with Captain Maurice when he says: "The increasing extent of ground occupied by a given number of men tends to make the company a more convenient body than the battalion for direct command." * Indeed I should go further, and say that experience proves the battalion cannot be commanded *directly* under fire. But I fail to follow Captain Maurice when he proposes to introduce companies of 200 to 250 men, with one captain and four subalterns, as being "probably as large as could conveniently be under the *direct personal superintendence of one officer*." † Captain Maurice's company, be it remembered, is divided into four sections, each under a subaltern; and, in fighting array, one section would furnish the skirmishers, two sections the supports, and the fourth the reserve. How one captain on foot is to exert a "direct personal superintendence" over four large sections in such a formation is more than I can conceive. In fact, I do not believe it to be for one moment possible, and I feel sure I have stretched the sphere of direct command to its very utmost limits when I suggest a company of ninety-six men, one-half of which might be with the skirmishers, and the other with the supports.

It may be further said, as Prince Frederick Charles has said in his "Militärische Denkschrift"—"The question of the size of the company is a question of trowsers, the looseness or tightness of which depends upon the shape of the leg they are intended for. In the same way, the size of the company depends upon the intrinsic value of the officers and men composing it." No doubt the value of the officers and men has a certain influence in determining the size of the company, but it is one of secondary importance and of a negative character. An officer capable of commanding 100 Englishmen in skirmishing order, would not be able to command an equal body of Circassians in the same order, because of their inferior *morale*. In other words, the less the discipline, the smaller the company. But no amount of discipline would enable an officer to command directly a much larger body than 100 men, simply because, under the actual conditions of the case, he would be unable to communicate his orders to them.

We have been warned, too, by officers who have looked at the question from the same point of view, that the relations existing between the officers and men form an important element in deciding upon the size of the company.‡ Whatever influence these rela-

* "Wellington Prize Essay," p. 56.

† "Wellington Prize Essay," p. 61. The italics are mine.

‡ "Wenn fremden Armeen unser Compagniekolonnen-Gefecht copiren wollen, so mögen sie sich zunächst fragen, wie es mit diesen Grundlagen, Offizier und Mannschaft bei ihnen sich verhält. Sie nehmen sonst die Nachtheile ohne die Vortheile auf." May,—Taktische Rückbliche, 16.

"No adaptation from other armies of tactics which may have been eminently

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tions exert are entirely in my favour. The most rabid partisan of large companies would hardly advocate a larger company than 250 men. If, therefore, 250 men is found to be the "best possible" strength for a German company, the "best possible" strength of an English company must necessarily be considerably smaller, as the relations between the officers and men are totally different from those which exist between the officers and men in the German Army.

Finally, I may be told that the German zug of eighty-three men corresponds with sufficient accuracy to a company of 90 or 100 men. As far as the mere figures go, it certainly does; but, in point of fact, there is no analogy between the two bodies. As the zug possesses but one officer, a subaltern, it is, practically speaking, indivisible, and when in the skirmishing line, with one yard per man, would occupy eighty-three yards—a much longer line than any officer on foot can supervise single-handed. To work such a zug of English soldiers in the skirmishing line, at least two officers, a captain, and a subaltern would be required; and such a change in the officers would increase the officers in a company of three zuge to four captains and three subalterns. The company of 250 men would then be openly what it is now covertly, a small battalion.

I have said enough, I trust, to prove that, whatever be the defects of our organization in other respects, the size of our company is far better adapted to the requirements of the breech-loading rifle than the much-vaunted company of the Prussians. Like everything human, our company falls very far short of perfection, and is capable of many and great improvements. It is to be improved, however, not by enlarging its size, in open contradiction to the lessons of history and the principles of tactics, but by increasing the independence and improving the position of its captain, until he becomes in reality, and not in name only, the *caput*, or head, of his men.

NOTES ON THE SHIPS AND NAVIGATION OF THE MODERNS.

By C. R. Low, I.N., F.R.G.S.

CHAPTER I.

As the ancient Greeks owed their liberties and very existence as an independent State, to their Naval superiority over the Persians, and the Romans acquired the sovereignty of the ancient world almost as much by their fleets as their armies, so we Britons—

successful with them will prove satisfactory, unless the difference of temperament be taken into consideration."—About Tactics. By Captain Luymann, 49th Pomeranian Regiment, translated by Captain Jones, 20th Regiment.

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who arrogate to ourselves the position formerly held by those mighty nations of antiquity, and to which, as regards our pre-eminence as the great colonizers of modern times, we are certainly entitled—owe our proud position as a great power alike in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, to our preponderance at sea. When, 500 B.C., the Delphic Oracle was consulted, it advised the Athenians to defend themselves with wooden walls, which Themistocles, with characteristic acumen, interpreted to mean that they were to trust to their ships; so it is that as long as we command the sea, and continue to breed an unrivalled race of seamen, this England of ours can never be relegated to a secondary position in the councils of Europe.

Britain has assumed the proud pre-eminence in navigation once held by the great maritime nations of antiquity. First the Phœnicians brought the commerce of the East for the use of the Western world, and their ships found their way as far to the eastward as Sumatra, the Ophir of Scripture, and to the westward as the shores of Cornwall. Their capital, Tyre, became for centuries the emporium for all nations, the mountains of Lebanon supplying the timber for building the ships, which were manned by the seamen of the Levant. Then the great Phœnician colony, Carthage, first rivalled and then excelled the opulence and greatness of the mother-country, and her merchant princes sent their fleet along the western coasts of Africa and Europe. The Greeks excelled in the arts of seamanship and navigation as in all else, though superiority in war chiefly engrossed their attention, and they restricted themselves to the navigation of the seas adjacent to Greece. Their chief rivals for maritime supremacy were the Corinthians and Corcyrœans. On the destruction of Tyre by Alexander the Great, its pre-eminence in commerce was transferred to Alexandria, which became the emporium of trade. When Antony staked and lost an empire at Actium, the Trafalgar of ancient history, Egypt became a Roman province, and under the fostering care of Augustus, the commerce of Alexandria so greatly increased that it became the magazine of Rome, and its merchant princes were not inferior in wealth to the aristocracy of the mistress of the world. At length Alexandria, like its predecessors, Tyre and Carthage, fell from its high estate, though its abasement was neither so overwhelming nor final. The Saracens, in spite of the Emperor Heraclius, spread over Northern Africa, and ousted the merchants of Alexandria, which remained in a state of decadence until the channels assumed by modern trade, our conquest of India, and the establishment of the Overland route restored to it much of its ancient prosperity. The overthrow of Rome by barbarian races adversely affected the interests of maritime commerce, and retarded the advancement of navigation, which, during the dark ages, was cultivated by the Norsemen, Britons, and Italian Republics of Genoa and Venice. We will now trace the steps by which these races kept alive the nautical spirit that had found its chief exponents

in the great nations of antiquity, and induced that desire for maritime exploration which inspired a Columbus to discover a New World, and a Da Gama to round the Cape of Storms.

The British ships which vainly strove to oppose the progress of Julius Cæsar were made, says a writer, with bottoms flatter than the Mediterranean vessels, in order to accommodate themselves to a tidal harbour and a shoal coast; and they were elevated both at the prow and at the poop, in order the better to adapt them to resist a stormy sea. They were constructed wholly of oak; the anchors were secured by iron chains, instead of the cable which had been previously used; and the sails were made of skins and thin leather, probably from an opinion that a weaker material would not stand the force of the wind. The elevated poops of the British vessels gave them an advantage over the Roman galleys, by furnishing a higher standing-place, from which missiles could be directed at the Roman galleys, while their oak timbers afforded a successful resistance to the collision of the beaks of the galleys against their sides. The only way, it is said, in which Cæsar was enabled to capture these vessels was by causing his soldiers to fit sharp bill-hooks at the end of long poles, by which they severed the halliards and other tackle of the sails, thus placing the ships at their mercy. And here we may note that the dexterity of the ancient Britons in the management of their war-ships must have been acknowledged, as we find that on the coins of the Emperor Claudius, Britain is represented with the prow of a vessel at her feet, implying her national symbol, like the lion of Africa and the crocodile of Egypt.

The vessels employed by the ancient Britons for crossing the English and Irish Channels, for commercial purposes, were called coracles, and were constructed of wicker-work, and covered with skins, much resembling in form those in use at the present day on the Severn and some of the rivers in Wales, which are so light that, when the fisherman lands, he takes his boat out of the water and carries it home on his back. Dr. Southey says: "Several canoes have been dug up in Lincolnshire, all of oak, and remarkable for the free grain of the timber, so that the millwrights and carpenters who examined it declared that, in their opinion, it was of foreign growth, and the produce of a warmer country. But that the canoes could no have been brought there from any warmer country seems certain; and if any inference can be drawn from the grain of the wood, as indicating its growth in a warmer climate, it would seem to be that these canoes were made when the climate of the island was warm enough for elephants, hyenas, tigers, hippopotami, and other inhabitants of Southern countries, whose remains have been brought to light here." In like manner, we are told, the Saxon invaders of England had ships made with a wooden keel, the sides being of wicker, with an exterior of hides. The batswan, or boatswain, had a wand in his hand to direct the motion of the rowers. During the sanguinary conflicts in which the Britons were engaged,

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first with the Romans, then with the Picts and Scots, and afterwards with the Danes and Saxons, it does not appear that any great change was made in the form or management of their war-galleys. When Alfred the Great had routed some of the Danish invaders, they revenged their defeats on land by harassing the coast of Wessex by sea, in vessels called æscs. The boats of the Danes ordinarily in use were broad-bottomed, but, unlike those belonging to the early Britons, their keels were made of light timber, and the sides and upper works were of wicker, covered with strong hides. The æscs were superior to these, and indeed to Alfred's ships, for he ordered the latter to be made twice as long as the former, in order to be placed on an equality with them, and some of his galleys rowed thirty pairs of oars, as did likewise the largest of the æscs. For a long period the fierce and ruthless Danes harassed the unhappy inhabitants of Britain. The shores of the Baltic Sea, inhabited by these Danes, were parcelled out into a number of petty territories, each of which had its chief or sovereign. When a son of any one of these sea-kings succeeded his father, his brothers had each a vessel given to them, in which they were to seek their fortunes, and under the poetical name of vikings, which may be freely translated into "pirates," they became the terror of the surrounding countries. So hardy and ferocious were they, that it was a proud boast of theirs that they never slept under a roof, and never ate by a fireside. Their vessels used to scour the Baltic and the German Ocean, and bring devastation to all around. The piratical adventurers of the northern coast of Europe, called Northmen and Normans, doubtless advanced the maritime art in the first centuries of the Christian era, and in time lent their assistance as mercenaries to the different governments who sought their aid, or subsidised them in order to escape their exactions. Offa, one of the Saxon kings, got together a very fair fleet, and made himself so formidable that Charlemagne, King of France, who had been hostilely disposed towards him, sought his friendship and alliance. His successors neglected this fleet, and thus suffered the sea coast to be harassed and plundered by the Danes; and the facility with which the latter landed and laid waste the country, shows that the English, up to the time of Alfred, in the ninth century, were very neglectful of maritime affairs, which was probably due to the Heptarchy and the consequent internal dissensions which distracted the country. King Alfred, seeing that the most effectual method of repressing the inroads of the Danes was to meet them on the seas, invited ship-builders from other countries, and made ships larger and stronger than those of the Danes. He also enlisted the services of foreign seamen, whereby the ships were more efficiently manned, and made strenuous exertions to encourage the love of the sea among his own countrymen. The fruits of his patriotic efforts were soon apparent, and, in the year 885, Alfred's Navy attacked and destroyed, off the Essex coast, a large Danish fleet. Before his death, Alfred had created a fleet of 120 ships, and

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we are also told that he greatly encouraged commerce as a method of increasing the maritime proficiency of his subjects. It is noted as a proof of his attention to nautical affairs that, under his auspices, one Ochter undertook a voyage into the Arctic regions, and made a survey of the coasts of Lapland and Norway. According to the Saxon chronicles quoted by Harris, the learned writer on the dealings of the European States with the East Indies, this great monarch, in the year 883, dispatched one of his ecclesiastics, named Sighelmus, "to carry his alms to the poor distressed Christians of Saint Thomas* and Saint Bartholomew, in the Indies," supposed to be near Madras. "The fact," adds Harris, "is indeed pretty extraordinary, and if we had not as clear and distinct evidence to support it as any point in our ancient history, I should not have mentioned it; but as the Saxon annals set down this as a passage, and as this Sighelmus did not only perform that voyage according to the instructions of his royal master, but afterwards returned home, and became Bishop of Shireburn, or Sherburn, in Dorsetshire, and left in the treasury of his church, as William of Malmesbury hath recorded, both spices and jewels which he brought back with him out of that country, I see no reason at all to doubt or question the fact." During the dark ages, however, no attempts were made by the European nations to extend geographical knowledge, which remained almost as limited as in the days of Pliny and Ptolemy. The Arabian geographers alone gradually began to acquire information concerning Asia and Africa, but their discoveries were unknown to Europeans, until, some centuries later, a translation of a work by two Mohammedan travellers was given to the world by a French *savant*.

Much encouragement was given to mercantile pursuits by the enactment of a law by Athelstan, that every merchant who set forth three voyages to the Mediterranean, on his own account, should be raised to the honour, and enjoy the privileges, of a gentleman. This law seems to imply that a considerable improvement had taken place in the construction and management of English vessels, and also that there was a marked increase in the mercantile marine of this country. The Navy attained still greater proportions in the reign of Ethelred, surnamed the "Unready," who issued an edict that whoever possessed a certain number of hides of land, a hide being supposed to be as much ground as a man could turn up with one plough in a year, should be charged with the building of one ship or galley, and owners of a portion of a hide, a proportionate part. Soon after this, Ethelred attacked the Danes, who were at

* An old traveller, J. A. de Mandelsloe, says that when the Portuguese first took possession of Cochin and Cannanore, the christian inhabitants of this coast implored their protection. They affirmed that St. Thomas, one of the twelve apostles, built a chapel here and was murdered whilst at his devotions. Mappens says, by the special command of King John of Portugal, the bones of this saint were transferred to Goa where a fine church was erected to his memory. On the other hand, Rufinus affirms that St. Thomas suffered martyrdom at Edessa in Mesopotamia, to which pilgrimages used to be made.

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anchor off the coast of Essex, with a powerful fleet, one of the admirals of which, by the way, was a bishop, and, notwithstanding the treachery of Earl Alfric, who deserted to the enemy, the Danes feared an encounter, and escaped during the night. However, they fell into the hands of a second British fleet, described by an annalist as belonging to London, which entirely dispersed them, killing many thousands of them, and capturing the flag-ship of the traitor Alfric, although the earl himself escaped. In the year 959, King Edgar, it is said, equipped a fleet of 3,000 vessels in order to defend the kingdom against the Danes. By dividing and stationing this fleet in different parts, he kept the enemy at bay, but, owing to the gradual neglect of these precautionary measures, the Danes, with their king, Sweyn, in the year 1009, were able to land on the English coast, to drive Ethelred from his throne, and to place their own monarch thereon. The son and successor of the Danish monarch was Canute, of whom the story is told that he gave his sycophantic courtiers a lesson in humility by affecting to command the waves of the sea to obey his pleasure. About this time, the Danes enlarged their open barks of twelve oars into regular vessels of considerable size and strength, many of them being capable of holding 100 men, and some even more. We are informed that the ships of Canute were beautifully covered over with gold and silver. It appears that they had each but one mast, which was ornamented with a gilt metal vane under the figure of some bird, to denote the direction of the wind. At the stern were various figures, plated with gold and silver, such as of a man, a lion, a dragon, a fish, &c. The ancient English chronicles afford but slender information of the progress of naval architecture and of navigation among the Anglo-Saxons; and, though it is probable that but little change was made from reign to reign, an incident in the reign of Hardicanute shows that the art of ship-building had been making some progress. Earl Godwin, having murdered Prince Alfred, son of King Ethelred, in order to appease the anger of Hardicanute, the half-brother of the prince, presented to him a galley sumptuously gilt, and rowed by eighty men, each of whom wore on his arm a golden bracelet, weighing sixteen ounces.

Shortly before the Normans invaded Britain, they showed themselves to be powerful rivals, in maritime affairs, to the Southern nations. This was brought about in a way very similar to the establishment of the Saxon rule in Britain, some centuries before. "The Normans," says Sir Walter Raleigh, "grew better shipwrights than either the Danes or Saxons, and made the last conquest of this land—a land which can never be conquered whilst the kings thereof keep the dominions of the seas." The Sicilians, being harassed by pirates, called in the assistance of the Normans, who, originally coming from Norway, conquered the north-west portion of France, which they called after them, and, being a robust, hardy, and courageous race, achieved great success in their predatory excur-

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sions. The Normans, after assisting the more effeminate Sicilians, afterward settled amongst them, and, conforming to the habits of the people, ultimately gained great ascendancy. They conquered a considerable part of Italy, and then directed their arms against the Eastern Empire. Thirteen hundred Norman knights and 13,000 soldiers, under Robert Guiscard, were transported across the Adriatic, to the Eastern Empire, but the attempt was ultimately unsuccessful.

The Norman invasion of England was effected with 60,000 men, embarked in 3,000 vessels, which allowed, on an average, but twenty men to each vessel, so that the dimensions of the latter must have been very small, as the vessels were only used as transports, to convey the army across the channel, and not as war-ships. The fleet which Harold opposed to the Norman progress appears to have been of a superior class of vessels, but, as William's plan was to carry on the contest by land, Harold's fleet was foiled of preventing the success of the invasion by a naval engagement. There are accounts extant, due to the researches of the Society of Antiquaries of Copenhagen, of the discovery of the Orkneys, the Shetlands, the Hebrides, the Faroe Islands, and Iceland, by the Norse navigators; and the voyages that led to these great results were undertaken partly with a mercantile view and partly under the romantic, but in those days wide-extended, notion of reaching the regions of the dead and the abodes of bliss, which for countless ages were supposed to lie in the direction of the setting sun—a belief which is still held by the Red Indians of North America. The Faroe Islands were discovered in the ninth century, and, in the year 861, a Norwegian freebooter, who was proceeding thither, was driven by an easterly gale to the westward, and sighted an island, to which he gave the name of Snow-land. Three years after his return, a Swede, by name Gardar Snaffarson, wintered on this island, and gave so flourishing an account of it, that one Flok, or Flokko, a Norwegian, proceeded thither and passed the winter, but was less pleased with it than his predecessor, and gave it the name of Iceland, which it has ever since borne.* In the year 874, it was visited by Jujolf and Leif, and other settlers arrived from Norway, who are said to have discovered wooden crosses, bells, and books, such as were in use in Britain and Ireland, pointing to the island having been inhabited before, probably by settlers from the "Emerald Isle," though Forster, in his "Northern Voyages," is of opinion that these relics were left by Norman pirates, who had stolen them from Ireland.

The Icelandic chronicles also relate that the Northmen discovered a great country to the west of Iceland, and, though this account has by some writers been deemed apocryphal, there can be little doubt of its truth, and that the country they discovered was Greenland. Further, that they settled on the shores of Baffin's Bay, and made regular trips to Lancaster Sound, and part of Barrow's Strait is

* See Mallet's "Northern Antiquities," and Sir John Barrow's "Chronological History of Arctic Voyages."

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equally probable, as three stone pillars, inscribed with Runic characters, with the date 1135, were discovered in the autumn of 1824, on Women's Islands, in latitude 72° 55′.

Professor Rafn, of Copenhagen, has given in the "Antiquitates Americanæ," published by the Society of Northern Antiquaries, the contents of some Gothic MSS., from which, and from the chronicle of Olaf Trygveson, published in 1697, at Stockholm, by Sturlonides, it is established, without reasonable doubt, that not only Greenland, but the Continent of America was discovered five centuries before the time of Columbus and Cabot, by Norwegian navigators. In the year 982, Eric Randa, or the Red, being outlawed, set sail from Iceland, in search of land, which, according to tradition, had been seen by one Gunbion, "when he was driven westward out into the ocean." The hardy Norseman discovered land, to which he gave the name of Greenland, observing that if the country has a good name, people will be attracted to it. Eric was followed by his countryman, one named Herjulf Bardon, who colonized Greenland. His son Biorn, returning to Iceland from a trading voyage to Norway, and finding that his father had emigrated to Greenland, resolved to follow his example. Though he and his crew were ignorant of the navigation, they put out to sea, says the Saga, and sailed during three days, until the land was lost sight of under the water, but then the favouring wind fell, and there arose the north wind and fog, and they knew not whither they were sailing, and thus it went on for many days. A storm now arose, and the ship was driven far to the south-westward, where Biorn saw a fine plain country covered with wood, but declined to land, notwithstanding the solicitations of his crew. Biorn turned his ship's head to the northward, and eventually they reached the promontory where his father dwelt, which was named Herjulf's Ness, and has been identified with Ikigeit on the south coast of Greenland. When the Greenland colonists heard of the lands discovered by Biorn, they blamed him for not exploring them, and in the year 1000 Eric's son, Leif, sailed for that purpose, accompanied by Biorn. "They came first," says the Saga, "to the land which Biorn had discovered last. Landing here, they saw no grass. Great mountains there were in the interior, but between the sea and the mountains the land was a stony plain." This land Leif called "Helleland," or "Stoneland." Proceeding to sea again, they discovered another country. Again they sailed in, and cast anchor, lowered their boat, and went ashore. This country was flat, and covered with woods, and wherever they went there were large tracts of white sand, and the coast was low. Leif called this land Markland, from its wood. Again they set sail, and on the second day came to land, to the northward of which was an island. They ascended a river, which they found issued from a lake, and here they resolved to pass the winter. This place they called Vinland, from its vines. It is conjectured, and with every circumstance of truth, that Vinland is the country in New England between

Boston and New York; that Stoneland is Newfoundland, and Markland, Nova Scotia.

The Norse Settlements, on the west shore of Greenland, increased until they consisted of four parishes, containing 100 villages. "But being engaged," says Barrow, "in perpetual hostility with the Esquimaux, to whom they gave the name of Skœllings, it would appear that ultimately they were destroyed; the ruins of their edifices were visible in the year 1721, when the missionary Hans Egede visited and described that country, on its being re-colonized by the Greenland company of Bergen in Norway. The Eastern Colony, about the commencement of the fifteenth century, consisted of twelve parishes, with 190 villages, two convents, the whole being under the ecclesiastical government of a bishop, of whom sixteen are recorded in Icelandic annals, to whom and the Holy See the colony paid 2,600 lbs. weight of the walrus, or sea-horse teeth. But the communication was frequently interrupted, and at length, in 1406, entirely ceased, from which date nothing more was ever heard of the unfortunate colonists.

The descriptions of Greenland by ancient writers greatly impressed the popular mind, ever prone to superstitious dread of the unknown. Enormous icebergs floated along the coast, and filled every inlet, and the awful appearance of Nature in this desolate part of the world, its remoteness, and the horrors of the stormy seas which intervened, soon made it, in the popular belief, a land of wonders. The surrounding sea was said to be inhabited by marine giants, of both sexes, and the terrific icebergs, as they moved along, were reported to be guided by invisible hands. It was also said that a man named Hollin Geit walked from Norway to Greenland on the ice, conducted by a goat. Thomson, the poet of the "Seasons," well portrays these horrors:—

"Ill fares the bark, with trembling wretches charged,
That, amid the floating fragments, moors
Beneath the shelter of an icy isle,
While night o'erwhelms the sea, and horror looks
More horrible. Can human force endure
Th' assembled mischiefs that besiege them round?
Heart-gnawing hunger, fainting weariness,
The roar of winds and waves, the crash of ice,
Now ceasing, now renewed with louder rage,
And in dire echoes bellowing round the main."

The memory of the discoveries made by the Norse navigators was lost until the end of the fourteenth century, when Antonio and Nicolo Zenio, two Venetian brothers, were said to have visited the coast of America and Greenland. Their adventures in the northern seas, stated to have been compiled from the letters sent by Antonio to his eldest brother, Corto, were first published by Francesco Warutini, in 1558, and afterwards appeared in Ramusio's "Collection of Voyages and Travels" (Vol. II., p. 220). From these it

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appears that Nicolo was cast away by a storm on a large island, which he called Frisland, and entered into the service of the king, Zickumi, who placed him in command of a fleet of thirteen ships, with which he conquered several adjacent islands. Antonio joined him, and remained for fourteen years—ten of them alone, and four with his brother. Nicolo proceeded towards the north, and arrived at Engroneland, supposed to be Greenland, and here he died. Soon afterwards Antonio, hearing an account of an island called Estobiland, 1,000 miles to the westward of Frisland, which traded with a country to the southward called Durgis, accompanied Zickumi with several ships in search of it. By many the entire story is disbelieved, but Buache, Forster, and Eggers identify Frisland as the Faroe Island; Malte-Brun considers that Estobiland is Newfoundland, and Durgis, Nova Scotia and New England. (*See* his "Précis de la Géographie Universelle," Vol. I., p. 405.)

So gross was the ignorance of geography even among the lettered that we are told the abbot of Chigny, in Burgundy, thought that Paris was so remote, that he refused to comply with the request of the Count de Bourcard, who wished to establish a monastery of his order at St. Maur, in the neighbourhood of Paris; and Otho, bishop of Bamberg, in Bavaria, had never heard of the Baltic Sea, and was vastly surprised, when sailing across it, to find that it was so broad that from the middle of it the opposite shores seemed just like clouds in the horizon. Charlemagne the Great, Emperor of France, anxious to acquire some knowledge of the world, of which he ruled so large a proportion, caused to be constructed a large table of silver, on whose surface was engraved a map of the world as then known; but his grandson, Lothaire, in the war which he carried on with the other Carlovingian princes, used this precious and expensive chart of the earth for his more immediate necessities, so that, as has been quaintly observed, "the silver world was soon melted down to supply the necessities of one of its kingdoms."

In the dark ages, when all the arts of civilization declined, the practice of navigation and the art of ship-building in Europe does not seem to have advanced beyond the state in which it was left by the Carthaginians, when their country was finally depopulated by the Romans, and about the year 800 maritime affairs had sunk to so low an ebb, that there was scarcely what could be with propriety called a navy in the world, except the galleys of Venice and the vessels of the Saxons and some of the northern nations. The Eastern Empire, the Frankish Empire, under Charlemagne, the Saracens, and other nations, were now so busily occupied in military transactions, that they had neither time nor treasure to augment and maintain their fleets.

It has been observed that had the founder of Islam turned his attention to naval affairs, he might have made a complete revolution in the mode of constructing and managing ships, and in the political condition of the globe, from the enormous power which gradually

accumulated in his hands. Mahomet, however, propagated his creed by armies, and, beginning from Mecca and Medina, extended his dominions by force of arms to the neighbouring countries of Syria, Persia, Asia Minor, and Egypt. Mr Charnock, in his "History of Marine Architecture," says:—"The collection of an army, more particularly considering the simple state in which military tactics then were, was the operation of a few days, or perhaps only of a few hours. Every peasant could be transformed on the instant into a soldier. He readily became acquainted with all the duties of his profession. The production and plunder of the districts which he overran with religious zeal, and in the inspired hope of obtaining eternal sensual felicity after death, made him totally regardless of his life, and supplied him with food, as well as with raiment, so that his sword and his Koran became the only necessary articles of equipment for the field of ravage and of glory. A navy was not to be collected by such slender means. Its formation required a species of deliberation that was incompatible with the views of Mahomet and his followers." At a later date, a new Republic, Genoa gradually assumed an imposing position, and began to divide with Venice, which at that time ruled the Mediterranean, the maritime traffic of that important sea. A band of adventurers from the south of Spain ravaged the coasts of Italy, and gave employment to the Genoese marine; and later a second band of depredators showed themselves in Croatia, on the eastern shore of the Adriatic Sea. Their vessels were made without decks or beaks, called rostra, and were, in fact, nothing more than boats (although it is customary to apply the term galley to them), for a fleet of 100 such vessels contained only 3,000 men, including both sailors and soldiers. About the ninth century the Roxolani, or Russians, first became known to the Constantinopolitans, and we are told they brought in their canoes slaves, furs of every description, the spoil of their beehives, and the hides of their cattle, from the north towards the southern districts by means of river communication. They conveyed these articles of merchandize once a year to Constantinople, by a fleet of canoes, which passed down the Borysthenes and other rivers leading from Russia to the Euxine Sea, and, in exchange for their cargoes, carried back corn, wine, oil, and other productions to their own country. These yearly visits gave the Russians a thirst for the wealth and luxury which they witnessed at Constantinople, and, in progress of time, they seized by force that which they had previously gained by barter. These piratical excursions were made in vessels which were thus formed:—A canoe was scooped out of the stem of the beech or willow, and the edges were extended upwards by planks fastened side by side, until the length of the boat attained 60 feet and the height 12 feet. These boats were built without a deck, but had a mast, so that they moved with sails and oars; each boat would contain seventy men, with their arms, and sufficient provision, consisting of water and salt fish. Twelve hundred of these boats were, in some cases,

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joined in one combined fleet, which descended the Borysthenes and other rivers, and landed their men wherever plunder could be obtained.

From about the year 1,200 the naval force of the Eastern Empire gradually sank into insignificance, and never afterwards recovered its ascendancy. An attempt was made by the Emperor Manuel to gain possession of Italy, but the little and comparatively insignificant Republic of Venice showed itself more powerful at sea than the once mighty empire. From the time of that event no maritime undertakings of the Greek Empire are worthy of notice. A great change in naval affairs was effected by the Crusades, which brought into prominence the naval arm, and made it almost of equal importance with the military. Every nation of Christendom was called upon to send its quota of armed men to the general armament fitted out for the liberation of the Holy Land; but, as Palestine could not be approached by land from Europe, except through the territory of the Eastern Empire, and as the political relations of that empire with other countries did not always admit of its being made a military road from Europe, it followed that the Mediterranean became the line of passage for the soldiers of the Cross. Not only was a spur given to the extension and improvement of naval operations, but a great development of commercial enterprise by sea was brought about by the Crusades, which threw open the Mediterranean to English traders, though the great centres of trade with Constantinople and Alexandria continued to be Venice, Pisa, and Genoa, which, intent only on commercial speculation, failed to promote maritime discovery and science. Hence geographical research was carried on by land, and we find that, besides the messengers of Pope Innocent IV. in 1245, and of Louis IX. in 1253, despatched into Central Asia, four centuries before their time, in the reign of our King Alfred, two Mohammedan travellers journeyed through India and China. Their travels, which were translated from the Arabic by the Abbe Renaudot, may be found in Harris' "Collection of Voyages and Travels," Vol. I., pp. 521-46, and are spoken of by Pinkerton "as not a little curious."

It was in the time of Richard I., that there began to be a clear system of English maritime law, and some of the provisions of these early codes, as published to the world in Mr. Lindsay's valuable "History of Merchant Shipping," are very curious. We find regulations as to stowage and delivery of goods, stoppage of sailors' wages for disobedience of orders, branding in the face for desertion, and penalties for incompetence. If a seaman fell sick he was to be sent on shore, with a ship's boy to attend upon him, and if he gave the lie to another at a table where there was wine and bread, he was to be fined four deniers, from which we may gather that the manners and language of the forecastle were more moral and choice than, we fear, they can be said to be in these degenerate days. Again, if a difference arose between a master

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and a seaman, the former was to deny the latter his mess thrice before he turned him out of his ship. A pilot stranding a vessel was to lose his head if he had no means to make good the damage, and pilots who, in "connivance with lords on the coast," ran a ship ashore, were "to be hung on high gibbets near the place where these accursed pilots brought the ship to ruin;" while, as for the wicked "lord on the coast" who made money by wrecking, he was to be "tied to a post or stake in the midst of his own mansion-house, which, being fired at the four corners, all shall be burnt together, and the place converted into a market for hogs." The more ordinary sort of wreckers, denounced as "more barbarous, cruel, and inhuman than mad dogs," were to be ducked in the sea till they were half-dead, then drawn out and stoned to death.

The reign of Edward the Third marked another stage in English commerce, with the opening of the Newcastle coal-fields, though a royal edict prohibited the use of coal in London while the Queen resided there, in case it might prove "pernicious to her health." Henry the Fifth built some fine ships for his expedition to France, but his fleets, like those of earlier and later times, were chiefly composed of vessels and men contributed by different towns of the realm.

The famous black-letter poem of the "Dominion of the Sea," written about this time, and from which Mr. Lindsay gives some interesting quotations, shows the value which Englishmen, even then, set upon the "silver streak" and the dominion of the narrow seas.

"The end of battaile is peace sickerly,
And power causeth peace finally.
Keep then the sea, about in special
Which of England is the town wall,
As though England were likened to a citie,
And the wall environ was the sea.
Keep then, the sea, that is the wall of England,
And then is England kept by Goddes hande,
That as for anything that is without,
England were at ease withouten doubt."

A Parliamentary document of the reign of Henry the Fifth begins as follows:—"The Commons do pray that, seeing our Sovereign Lord the King and his noble progenitors have ever been lords of the sea;" and so long back, indeed, as the reign of John, a law ordered the capture and condemnation of any vessels that did not "strike and veil their bonnets" at the command of a lieutenant of a King's ship.

The Crusades were golden times for Mediterranean shipowners, those of Venice especially enriching themselves by the enormous freights charged for transporting the knights and their followers and equipments to the Holy Land.

The ships of the Italian Republics had their capacity measured by two experienced inspectors when they were launched, and to prevent overloading, a line, which it was forbidden to submerge,

was marked on the hull, so that Mr. Plimsoll's load-line has its precedent. At Venice this mark consisted "of a cross painted or carved, or formed with two plates of iron;" while at Genoa, the Government load-line was indicated by "a triple mark of three small plates of iron fastened upon a particular line on each side of the hull," and in Sardinia the centre of a painted ring was the limit. The Mediterranean seamen of the Middle Ages had their sea-serpent, a monster with a mitre on his head and a dalmatic robe across his shoulders, who, it was well attested, once swallowed a sailor who had defied the Virgin Mary while throwing the dice, an occurrence which led to a law prohibiting the playing of such an unlucky game on board ship. The fleet in which Richard Cœur-de-Lion sailed for the Holy Land in April, 1191, collected from all the ports in England and the west coast of France, which was entirely subject to him, formed the finest armada that had ever been under the command of any king of England. There appears to have been thirteen large ships called busses or dromons, laden with stores; fifty-two armed galleys, and 150 transports or vessels of burden. Besides these there were 106 vessels which had assembled at Lisbon, coasted round Spain as far as Marseilles, and thence took a departure for Syria, without touching at any other port. The average number of men sufficient to navigate these, and even those of later times, was forty for the largest vessels, twenty for smaller ones, and ten or fifteen for still smaller ships. All these vessels were propelled by oars as well as sails. The galleys were adorned with innumerable pennants, and banners or standards were fixed on the tops of the spears. The rostra, or beaks, were distinguished by the variety of their paintings or figures; and the prows of the vessels shone with the light reflected from the shields fixed upon them. In order to keep the fleet from dispersing in the night time, a lantern was carried aloft by the King's vessel, which led the way for the whole fleet. Altogether the Armada must have presented an imposing and very gay appearance. When near Cyprus the fleet was overtaken by a gale, in which three ships, containing many persons of distinction, were driven ashore, and totally lost near Leinisso, or Limesol, in the island. The crews were robbed of all they possessed, and made prisoners by the Governor, who had the temerity to refuse admission into port to the rest of the fleet, whereupon Richard speedily effected a landing, and in the course of a few days entirely subdued Cyprus, and sent the inhospitable Governor a prisoner to Tripoli. In the famous siege of Acre, by the combined forces of England and France, the British fleet, which was anchored off the port, performed good service in preventing supplies from being thrown into the town. It also encountered, in a general action, a large Saracen squadron, and utterly defeated them, notwithstanding that the enemy were provided with fire-ships containing Greek fire. Some of Saladin's vessels were of a size unknown in Europe in

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those days, and one, the 'Dromunda,' which is described by contemporary historians as resembling a floating castle, was regarded by its crew as impregnable; but notwithstanding that this huge ship was secure against any missile then in use, and had a crew of 1,500 men, its lofty sides were scaled, and the vessel carried in a hand-to-hand combat, in which the British seamen gave a striking illustration of that irresistible prowess in boarding which has long since become historical. With the exception of 200 men, the entire crew were either killed or thrown overboard after the capture, at Richard's directions. Acre, which was destined to be the scene of more than one of our naval achievements, surrendered to the combined forces on the 12th of July in the same year.

At the end of the twelfth century, the semicircular line of battle adopted by the Greeks and Romans was still preserved. The soldiers stationed on the upper deck, or on the raised platform or forecastle, made a close bulwark of their shields, and to give them free room to fight the rowers sat down below. When the hostile fleets approached, the sound of trumpets gave the signal for the engagement, which commenced with a discharge of missiles on both sides. The beaks were forced against the enemy's sides, the vessels grappled together, and the engineers endeavoured to burn the enemy's ships with the Greek fire, which was now used by Turks, Saracens, and Christians. Such was the mode of fighting adopted by the Crusaders, and it was very similar to the method in use among the ancient Greeks and Romans. The accidents which occurred to William, son of Henry the First, and to Henry, son of Henry the Second, sufficiently show that the vessels in use at those periods must have been of considerable size. The former Prince, having embarked on board a new vessel, built by himself, for the purpose of conveying himself and his sister, attempted to outsail that of the king, and ran on a reef of rocks near the shore. The boat was immediately hoisted out, and the prince, with some of his attendants, might have escaped, but the passengers, stated to number between 200 and 300 persons, tried to crowd into the boat, which upset, and all were drowned. On the other occasion, the King having made an excursion to Brittany was overtaken by a violent storm on his return, by which his ship, in which were his son Henry and 300 other persons, was lost. King John paid great attention to maritime affairs, and the English navy gained great strength during his reign. The rivalry of the French and English fleets first commenced in the reign of this Prince, who boldly asserted, and caused his captains to enforce, the old custom of compelling all foreign vessels to strike their colours in homage to the English flag on encountering one of his ships of war on the high seas. In 1213, when Philip Augustus of France attacked the Earl of Flanders, John despatched a powerful fleet of 500 sail, under the Earl of Salisbury, to the assistance of the Earl, his old ally. Some authorities state that the English Admiral

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attacked the French fleet in the harbour of Dam, and others that the French were the aggressors in an action fought off the coast of Flanders, near that place; but, however this may be, all accounts agree that though the fleet of Philip outnumbered that of John as three to one, the latter achieved a complete victory, capturing 300 sail, and burning 100 others. The remainder of the French fleet being blockaded by the English, were destroyed by their crews, to prevent their being captured.

In the first year of the reign of Henry the Third, a French prince, afterwards Louis the Eighth, having collected troops for the subjugation of England, set sail from Calais at the head of a large army, conveyed by a fleet of "eighty stout ships." The Governor of Dover, Hubert de Burgh, decided on encountering this formidable armament, and this he did on the 24th of August, 1217, with a squadron of forty sail he had hastily assembled in the Cinque Ports. Ships of war were in those days still armed with strong sharp beaks, as in the days of ancient Carthage, and the English Admirals having gained the weather-guage by a skilful use of both oars and sails, bore down on the French fleet with resistless force, and caused terrible havoc with their iron beaks, while the archers made great slaughter with their "cloth yard shafts." They also had recourse to the stratagem of lading their decks with barrels of unslaked lime, which they threw into the eyes of the French sailors. During Henry's reign the navy was neglected so greatly that when his son, afterwards Edward the First, took his departure for the Holy Land, the ships of war that conveyed him were but thirteen sail, manned by about 1,000 seamen. When, however, this most warlike sovereign came to the throne, he repaired this neglect, and was rewarded in the year 1295 by a great victory which his fleet achieved over that of the French. For some years before this date, the quarrels between the seamen of the Cinque Ports and the mariners of the opposite coast became so violent, that outrages on the one side and reprisals on the other became of constant occurrence. At length a challenge to settle all the differences by a pitched battle was given and accepted. The 14th of April was appointed as the day for their hostile meeting, and the place of encounter was selected at a point midway in the Channel, almost within sight of both countries. The strength of the champion fleets, we are told, was not limited, for each was reinforced by all the allies that could be attracted to the rival standards by the hope of gain, national animosity, or sheer love of fighting, which has always formed so prominent a characteristic of sailors. Many Irish and Dutch vessels rallied to our side, while the French were assisted by the hardy seamen of Genoa, a State which even at that time ranked as one of the first of maritime powers. Altogether the number of the French more than doubled that of the English ships; but the skill of British sailors once more asserted itself, and a complete

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victory rewarded their gallantry. Many of the enemy's vessels were sunk, and nearly all the rest, to the number of 240 sail, were captured. The French soon repaired their losses, and, in the following year, equipped a fleet of 300 sail, with which they made a descent on the coast of Kent, and burnt Dover, in retaliation for which a British squadron effected a landing at Cherbourg, and plundered both the town and abbey. Edward the First divided his fleet into three portions, called respectively the Yarmouth, Portsmouth, and Irish squadrons.

The Normans, under Robert Guiscard, after having assisted the Sicilians as already mentioned, ingratiated themselves into their favour, and finally, usurping all power among them, attacked the Eastern Empire. The first attack was unsuccessful; but, subsequently, the empire was greatly harassed by the hardy Normans, who continually fitted out new armaments for the purpose of waging war against the Greeks. These proceedings greatly augmented the number of war-galleys in the Mediterranean; for the Greeks mustered their whole naval force to repel the advance of the Normans, and called in the assistance of the Venetians and other powers. At one time, it is stated that 1,500 Greek galleys were floating on the Mediterranean. Various fluctuations of fortune attended the two contending powers, and for a long series of years continued conflicts were carried on, generally in favour of the Normans. At last, however, when two or three of the vigorous and talented monarchs of the Normans had died, and left behind them none who could wield the sceptre with the vigour which had marked the career of Robert Guiscard, and his immediate descendants, the Norman power declined in the Mediterranean; and a marriage between the daughter of William of Normandy and a prince of the house of Plantagenet, caused the annexation of the Norman dominions to the crown of France, and the Eastern or Greek Empire became released from their harassing attacks. Gradually maritime affairs came more into prominence, and the revival is said by some writers to be due chiefly to the French; others aver, and with better grounds, we think, that the Italians were the early revivers of navigation, commerce, and all the attendant arts. The following is the origin of the Venetians, who were the greatest nautical power of this time. Venetia was anciently a province on the eastern coast of Italy, containing upwards of fifty cities; but when the barbarians, under Alaric, King of the Goths, and afterwards under Attila, King of the Huns, overran Italy, the Venetians fared miserably, and were driven from their homes and their country. They retired to a cluster of small islands, seventy-two in number, situated in the Adriatic Sea, and there gradually formed a community which, in process of time, almost ruled the sea, although for a long period they had no fence against its encroachments but hurdles, no other food than fish, no wealth besides their boats, and no merchandise but salt. These islands

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were marshy, and separated only by narrow channels; but they were well-screened, and almost inaccessible. It appears that the Veneti (as they were called in Latin) or Venetians, did not think of making a permanent residence in these islands, each one of which was for many years governed by its own chief, and formed a distinct State.

When their commerce and foreign dealings had made them objects of jealousy to foreign states, they thought of combining for mutual safety; and this union was first begun in the sixth century of the Christian era, and completed in the eighth. Their fleets then, in the course of time, visited all the ports of the Mediterranean and Egypt, and other places to which the produce of the East was usually brought. When the Venetians, by enterprise and perseverance, became a commércial people, they sent out galleys to accompany and protect their merchant ships. These galleys, we are told, were often luxuriantly fitted up, and near the bows was erected a platform, on which the soldiers, who were always the flower of their army, took their station, armed with bows and arrows and other arms. No other fleets were found so capable of conveying the vast armies of the Cross to the Holy Land, as those of Venice, which, in consequence were much benefited by the employment. Under Vitalio Micheli, the thirty-third Doge of Venice, says a writer, a naval armament was fitted out from Venice for the service of the Crusaders, which showed the power and wealth of that community. Two hundred galleys were prepared, which, after vanquishing the fleet of the neighbouring Republic of Pisa, attacked Ascalon in Syria, and captured it, as well as other towns. Under the next two Doges, Ordelapho Faliero and Domenicho Micheli, similar armaments were fitted out, and met with so much success on the eastern shores of the Adriatic, on the coast of Africa, and in the Holy Land, that the envy of the Greek emperors was excited, and a series of fierce engagements took place between them. In the time of the next Doge, about the year 1177, an event occurred which led to the Venetian ceremony of the "Doge marrying the Sea," which has its religious counterpart in the Greek church in the annual ceremony performed at St. Petersburg and Belgrade, of the Metropolitan of those cities blessing the waters of the Neva and of the Save. Pope Alexander being threatened with a hostile attack from Frederick Barbarossa, solicited the aid of the Venetians, which was afforded. Barbarossa thereupon sent a fleet of seventy-five large galleys, under his son Otho, to attack Venice, in which the Pope had taken refuge, but the attempt utterly failed, and forty-eight of Otho's galleys were either sunk, captured, or destroyed.

In order to signify his gratitude to the Venetians, Alexander presented the Doge with a ring, and accompanied it with these words, "Take this ring and present it to the sea, in token of your dominion over it; enjoin your successors to perform annually the

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same ceremony, that succeeding ages may learn that your valour acquired this prerogative, and has subjugated the ocean, even as a wife is subject to her husband." This custom of the "Doge marrying the Sea" was continued yearly for many centuries after this event. On Ascension day in each year, the doge, the senators, and persons of quality, together with the foreign ambassadors, entered a splendid vessel, called the 'Bucentaur,' which was fitted with great elegance for the ceremony of marriage. It was gilt from the prow to the stern, and was covered overhead with a kind of tent, or awning, made of purple silk. When all the companions of the doge had sailed out into the open sea in their gondolas, following the 'Bucentaur,' the doge threw a gold ring into the waters, saying—"We marry thee, O Sea, in token of that true and perpetual dominion which the Republic has over thee."

The naval ascendancy of Venice was afterwards manifested by many remarkable victories. The Eastern emperor having been deposed, his son solicited the aid of the Venetians, and of Baldwin, Earl of Flanders, to reinstate his father on his throne. Venice fitted out a large armament, consisting of sixty galleys, twenty large ships of war, and several transports. The object of the alliance was so far attained, that the usurper was deposed; but just at that crisis the old monarch died, and his son was murdered, so that Earl Baldwin was chosen emperor. In gratitude for the services which the Venetians rendered him in the course of these events, he gave them great privileges in his empire, and permitted them to acquire by conquest the Greek islands in the Archipelago. Not only did the Venetian State engage in this attack on the islands, but private individuals formed themselves into companies for the same purpose; the terms on which they co-operated being that every person whose property amounted to a certain sum, should furnish a ship of a given description and force, and by a proportionate scale, that those who were more or less wealthy should furnish a quota according to their means. As the expense thus became a general, though private, concern, the profits resulting from it were proportioned according to each one's contribution. The result of these expeditions was, that the whole of the Greek islands became subject to the Venetians. Shortly after this period hostilities broke out between the Venetians and the Genoese, who, jealous of their commercial greatness, conspired with the Greeks under the command of Michael Palaologus—who were disaffected after the partition of the Grecian States in 1104 by the leaders of the fourth crusade—and drove the Venetian merchants from Constantinople, thus securing the entire commerce by the Black Sea, and the inland trade with India. Their endeavours to share with their Venetian rivals the trade with Egypt, gave rise to a series of wars, and, finally, after many vicissitudes, the Venetians, under Dandolo, and the Genoese, under Doria, had a severe battle, which terminated in the destruction of the Genoese fleet, and the

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capture of its commander. During the lengthened period occupied by this constant succession of wars, many sanguinary battles took place, notably the great defeat of the Venetian fleet on the 8th of September, 1298, in which the Genoese took eighty-five ships and 7,400 prisoners, among whom were the Admiral and many persons of distinction. Peace was re-established towards the end of 1299, and the prisoners were set at liberty, among the number being the famous traveller Marco Polo. The battle of Chioza, fought at the end of the fourteenth century, terminated the strife by the annihilation of the Genoese fleet.

Though there does not appear to have been any great improvement in the construction of the vessels during this period of active warfare, the people of Venice and of Genoa are entitled to the credit of furthering the progress of navigation, at a time when the navy of England was in a very feeble condition, and the English were supplied by the Venetians with articles of foreign produce. Sir William Monson, a gallant and skilful seaman, who lived in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, says:—"The Venetians engrossed the whole of the trade upon those seas, and furnished us with the rich merchandise of Turkey, Persia, and India at what rate they pleased. The Venetians sent yearly their argosies to Southampton, which town enjoyed a charter from the kings of this land, which was wrested out of their hands by the Earl of Leicester, to the utter decay of that town; and the argosies since then have become strangers in England, which my eyes were witnesses to in the month of October, 1587." Sir William Monson then recounts how the last of these ships, being of 1,100 tons burden, and richly laden, was piloted to the shores of England by Forster, an English navigator, and on approaching the Isle of Wight the passengers, being desirous of getting into Southampton that night, compelled Forster, against his urgent remonstrances, to pilot the ship through the Solent, when the ship was lost on the Needles, "where she, her goods, and company, except seven poor creatures, perished." He continues:—"We may reckon from this time the decay in matters of Venetian trade, for argosies, which were wont to visit us, are now unknown to us, and we possess the wealth they were wont to reap. The commodities of Persia and the East Indies are brought by ourselves, in our own vessels, direct from Turkey, where we have obtained as great a freedom as we can desire. Such places as the Venetians were wont to take freight in their ships to transport from port to port, now we absolutely enjoy that privilege, for all strangers are more desirous to put their goods into English bottoms than theirs." Thus, before the first voyage made to the East Indies by the English ships, under Captains Raymond and Lancaster, in the year 1591, which had a disastrous issue, and the establishment of the East India Company in the last year of the century, the products of the East, conveyed thence by way of Trebizond, Damascus, and Alippo, and distributed to England,

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Germany, the Netherlands, and the Baltic, as well as the Mediterranean States, by the ships of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, were carried in English bottoms, and the direct trade with Turkey, by the Levant, which became so lucrative, was definitely established. After the desperate struggles between the Venetians and Genoese, a new naval power sprang up in the kingdom of Arragon, which occupied a considerable part of Spain, Castile being the other part. The Arragonese soon acquired great influence in the Mediterranean, but it does not appear that either the form of their vessels, or their mode of navigation, presented any variation from those of the Genoese or Venetians.

It is mentioned as a remarkable instance of the slow growth of naval power among a military people, like the inhabitants of Turkestan, that the great Tamerlane, or Timour the Tarter, although he possessed all the country from the Volga, on the north, to the Persian Gulf, on the south, and from the confines of China, on the east, to Damascus, on the west, could not cross the Hellespont into Europe on account of his not possessing a single galley. Had it been otherwise, the destinies of Europe, and indeed of the human race, might have been changed, for the hordes of Timour would have speedily overrun Europe, from the Dardanelles to the British Channel. As the Greeks of the Eastern Empire joined with the Turks of Asia Minor in preventing Timour from hiring any vessels, he was forced to abandon an intended attack on Constantinople, which, in 1453, fell to the arms of Mahomet the Second, founder of the Osmanli dynasty in Egypt, when the Eastern Empire became extinct. Before this date, the Turks had fixed the seat of their empire at Adrianople (so called by the Romans after their emperor), on the site of the ancient Orestias, the capital of the kings of ancient Thrace. In the course of the operations resulting in the capture of Constantinople, a remarkable stratagem was adopted by the Turks to bring their slender fleet near its walls without encountering the superior naval force of the Greeks. Gibbon thus describes it:—"The genius of Mahomet conceived and executed a plan of a bold and marvellous cast, of transporting by land his lighter vessels and military stores from the Bosphorus into the higher part of the harbour. The distance is about ten miles; the ground is uneven, and was overspread with thickets. A level way was covered with a broad platform of strong and solid planks, and, to render them more slippery and smooth, they were anointed with the fat of sheep and oxen. Fourscore light galleys and brigantines, of fifty and thirty oars, were disembarked on the Bosphorus shore, arranged successively on rollers, and drawn forwards by the power of men and pulleys. Two guides or pilots were stationed at the helm or prow of each vessel; the sails were unfurled to the wind, and the labour was cheered by song and acclamation. In the course of a single night this Turkish fleet painfully climbed the hill, steered over the plain, and was launched from the declivity into the

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shallow waters of the harbour, far above the molestation of the deeper vessels of the Greeks." Shortly after the capture of Constantinople by the Turks, the Venetians attempted to dispute the possession of the islands in the Mediterranean with them. But, though her navy was superior, she met with but indifferent success, and Venice did not maintain the proud position which she once occupied among the Mediterranean States.

Naval history now became barren of events of importance, until the arrival of that most important era when commerce began to engross the attention of maritime people more than war, and the progress of discovery opened a road to the introduction of Europeans to nations and countries before unknown. During these ages also the missions undertaken to different parts of the world, by land and sea, in order to convert the natives to Christianity, conduced to the general improvement of the human race. The expeditions of travellers promoted the same beneficial end, and particularly the travels of that most remarkable of all travellers, Marco Polo, the Venetian, who, born in 1251, journeyed, in company with his father and uncle, over Asia, from the Hellespont to the wall of China, for twenty-six years, seventeen of which were passed in the service of the Mongul Emperor of China. Marco Polo brought home varied information respecting the different countries of the East, which, being of a novel and wonderful character, was in a great measure disbelieved, and even burlesqued in the comedies of the times, though, as in the case of Bruce and other travellers, succeeding visitors have confirmed the truth of his statements respecting the countries and peoples of the East, and within the present year (1878) Mr. Baber, in his report of the Grosvenor Mission, certifies to the correctness of the great traveller's account of Yunnan. Marco Polo returned to Venice in 1297, and two years later, when a prisoner in the hands of the Genoese, the rivals of his countrymen, the Venetians, in maritime supremacy, dictated the account of his travels and discoveries to one Rustigielo, of Pisa. Editions of this work were published at Venice in 1496, at Trevigi in 1590, and an inaccurate and mutilated translation of the original manuscript in Latin towards the end of the fifteenth century, by Pepuri, a Dominican friar, of which Ramusio published a translation in his "Collection of Voyages and Travels." In more modern times, editions of Polo's travels have been published in most European languages, but it was reserved for that eminent scientific geographer, Colonel H. Yule, C.B., R.E., to produce an edition enriched with notes and commentaries, which will ever remain a monument to his own erudition and research, no less than to the pre-eminence of the greatest citizen of Venice.

The mariner's compass, which is believed to have been first introduced at the commencement of the fourteenth century, gave a great impetus to nautical research, for by its means the sailor was enabled to venture without fear into the open sea, which was thus robbed

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of half its terrors. Some attribute the honour of its invention to Flavio Gioia, of Amalfi, in Campania, whilst others contend that it was known to the Chinese. However, it is certain that its common introduction dates from the year 1420; and the discovery of the variation of the compass is claimed by both Columbus and Sebastian Cabot. At this time time the plane chart was the only one in use, but in the year 1545 two Spanish treatises were published by Pedro de Medina and Martin Cortes, which contained a complete system of the art of navigation as then practised. Medina's book was translated into Flemish, French, and Italian, but Cortes' was the favourite guide among English navigators, into which tongue it was translated in the year 1561, the system hitherto in use being that of Ptolemy. In 1530, Gemma Frisius invented the nautical quadrant, and seventeen years later Pedro Nunez, or Nonius, published a book exposing the errors of the plane chart, and invented a method of dividing a quadrant by means of concentric circles, which was improved by Halley, and is known as the "Nonius." In the year 1577 William Bourne published his treatise on navigation, and in 1599 Simon Steven issued at Leyden his work, known in its English translation as the "Haven-finding Art," in which the method of estimating the speed of a ship by a "log" is described. Michael Coignet published a treatise on navigation, at Antwerp, in 1581, and the same year the dipping-needle was discovered by Robert Norman. Though Gerard Mercator published his map on the principle known as "Mercator's Projection," in 1569, it was not until the year 1592 its utility found acceptance, and this was chiefly due to Edward Wright's famous "Correction of certain Errors in Navigation." Other works were published in 1608 by Simon Steven, and in 1524 by Snellins; and the invention of logarithms, by John Napier, of Merchiston, was of the greatest use to navigation. Gunter also constructed his scale, and in 1657 Norwood published his "Seaman's Practice," and also a manual called the "Epitome." In 1620 William Johnson published his "Light of Navigation;" but, more than to any one, the exposition of the true principles of the art is due to Wright, while many other Englishmen gave valuable co-operation, chief among whom was Bond who, in 1645, published in Norwood's "Epitome" an improvement of Wright's method. During the last and present centuries new works have been written by those standard authorities, Mackay, Norman, Riddle, and Norie.

For nearly two centuries, British shipping was subjected to what were known as the Navigation Laws. These enactments, due to legislation of a protectionist character, were doubtless of service in their day, but at the date of their abrogation, in 1846, had ceased to serve any useful object. Though the repeal of these laws (like that of the Corn Laws) was strenuously opposed, and the worst consequences predicted, experience has shown that they were prejudicial to the interests of commerce.

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Maritime discovery in the Middle Ages is most indebted to the Portuguese, among whom its chief patron was Prince Henry, surnamed the Navigator, son of King John the First, whose discoveries have found an able historian in Mr. Major, while his praises have been sung by an English poet, Bowles, in the following lines:—

"Henry, thy ardent mind first pierced the gloom
Of dark disastrous ignorance, that sat
Upon the southern wave, like the deep cloud
That lowered upon the woody skirts, and veiled
From mortal search, with umbrage ominous,
Madeira's unknown isle. But, look! the morn
Is kindled on the shadowy offing; streaks
Of clear cold light on Sagres' battlements
Are cast, where Henry watches, listening still
To the unwearied surge; and turning still
His anxious eyes to the horizon's bounds,
A sail appears, it swells, it shines; more high,
Seen through the dusk, it looms, and now the hull
Is black upon the surge, whilst she rolls on
Aloft, the weather-beaten ship, and now
Streams by the watch-tower!"

In the early part of the fifteenth century, John the First, King of Portugal, had effected some important conquests over the Moors, in which he had been very materially assisted by his fifth son, Prince Henry, who, however, rather delighted in the more beneficent glories of learning and science than the fame of war. Upon the cessation of hostilities, he retired to the promontory of St. Vincent, and lived at the sea-port town of Sagres, which he had himself founded, where he cultivated the science of astronomy, for the purpose of making it available to the mariner in guiding him over the ocean. Prince Henry established a naval college and an observatory; he called to his assistance all the most scientific men of his time, and the point to which he especially directed his attention was the practicability of sailing round Africa, and of thus reaching the East Indies. His ideas respecting the accomplishment of this project had received their first impetus while engaged on active service against the Moors, by intercourse with some well-informed persons at Ceuta, on the African coast, opposite to Gibraltar. Africa, of the three continents known to antiquity, was least traversed, and its deserts were invested with special terrors to the hearts of ancients, since the terrible catastrophe which overtook a portion of the army of Cambyses, when, while attempting a passage to one of the oasis, it was overwhelmed by a sand storm, and "only a moment interposed between the appearance of a pompous army and that of a hill of sand, which covered for ever the joyous and victorious battalion."

Though Prince Henry prosecuted his nautical labours for a period of more than forty years, he did not live to see his views accomplished in their entirety, but the discoveries which were effected

under his auspices were many and important, and from that day nautical research has been prosecuted with unflagging energy, not only by the Portuguese and Spaniards, but by the French and English. All the geographical knowledge respecting the earth was brought together, and recorded in maps drawn under his superintendence; charts were also constructed, and the rocks, coasts, and quicksands were all noted down. In the year 1485 was invented and brought into use the astrolabe (derived from two Greek words meaning to "take the height of the stars"), and the original of the quadrant,

"That sage device, whose wondrous use proclaims
The immortal honours of its authors'* names."

We will give a brief account of the successive steps by which this truly great prince, to whom has justly been given the name of the "Navigator," extended our geographical knowledge, and gave the impetus to maritime discovery which resulted, in the last decade of the country, in what may be regarded as, perhaps, the greatest achievements of all time—the discovery of America by Columbus, and the voyage to the East Indies by Da Gama.

Having purchased the right of the King of Castille over the Canaries about the year 1406, Prince Henry sent Ferdinand de Castro, Master of his Household, to take possession of them, and, four years later, began to fit out ships to explore the African coast.

In 1418 Tristan Vay discovered an island of the Madeiras, to which he gave the name of Porto Santo, because he sighted it on the feast of All Saints; and in the following year the Portuguese sighted an island 22° lat. to the westward of Porto Santo, to which the name of Madeira was given, on account of its being covered with wood. These islands still remain in possession of the Crown of Portugal. Creeping on by slow, but sure, steps, in 1439 the awful promontory known as Cape Bojador, situated in lat. 26° 7′ N., was rounded, and in the following year the Portuguese navigators sighted South Cape Blanco, in lat. 20° 46′ N. Thus the tropics was at length penetrated, and these regions divested of fancied terrors. In 1446, Nuno Tristan doubled Cape Verd, in lat. 14° 44′ N., and, two years later, Don Gongalo Vallo sailed to the islands which he called Azorres, or the Hawk Islands, from the Spanish word *Açor*, "a hawk," and where he established settlements. Three years later the Cape de Verd Islands were discovered. The first was called St. Mais, because it was seen on May Day, and others they named St. Philip and St. Jago; the latter is the chief island, being about 32 miles long and 13 broad, and contains Porto Praya, the finest harbour in the group. The other islands, seven in number, were discovered in 1460.

The Regent, Don Pedro, ruling during the minority of Alfonso IV., made a grant of the islands of Porto Santo and Madeira to Prince

* Two Jewish Physicians of John of Portugal, named Roderick and Joseph, who also calculated tables of the sun's declination.

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Henry, who applied for Papal sanction, and received from Pope Martin V. a bull, dated 1444, conferring on the Crown of Portugal all countries that should be discoversd on that side to the Indies, which occasioned great disputes with the Spaniards, who obtained a Papal grant of all lands to the west, as far as the Indies, thus dividing the world between them—that is, as far as paper edicts and anathemas could do so.

In 1471, Pedro d'Escovar passed the equator, and discovered the island of St. Thomas and Prince's Island, and on the following New Year's Day another island, which he called Anno Buono, whence the word has been corrupted to Annabon.

CYPRUS.

The policy which, in our July Number,* we anticipated as certain to be forced upon England, in respect to the Turkish Empire, has now been embodied in a formal Treaty, and as the first step towards an effectual development of the English Protectorate over Asia Minor, our glorious old flag, the emblem of freedom, civilisation, and progress has been hoisted in the celebrated island of Cyprus. We think, therefore, that the numerous readers of this Journal will be pleased to find in its pages a comprehensive abstract of the past history of this latest addition to our Empress-Queen's dominions.

Long before the mythical events related in the Odyssey, or at least before the composition of that celebrated epic, the rich mines of Cyprus, especially of that metal from which it derives its name, had attracted the attention of the energetic commercial Phœnicians. Kiti, the chief city at that time, became the central point of the trade between the three quarters of the globe bounding the Levant. Tradition says that this city owed its foundation to a great grandson of Noah and a nephew of Japhet. The Syrians came across to cut the splendid timber for their shipbuilding and to extract from the earth its valued treasures. The so-called Corybantes and Daktyles, who were probably an early form of our modern Joint Stock Companies, opened up mines. The great Assyrian Queen, Semiramis, procured Cyprian shipbuilders for employment on the Euphrates, and Cyprian bales brought the treasures of the rich shores of India to adorn the hanging gardens of Nineveh and the palaces of Asian rulers. The Phœnicians brought with them the worship of the Syrian goddess, Astarte, in whose honour temples were erected at Paphos, Amathunt, and Idalion.

Cyprus became the peculiar sanctuary of the prolific voluptuous deity whose power no mortal could resist. But as the Semitic

* "United Service Magazine," July, 1878.

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Phœnicions pushed on towards the west and north west they encountered a people of Aryan descent, equal to themselves in boldness and energy, while of superior intellect and greater versatility. These were the Greeks. Upon the Phœnician immigration of Cadmus to Hellas, and that of Pelops to Argolis followed the reactionary event of the Trojan war, which seems to have been nothing more than one of the first great struggles between the East and the developing West, gradually becoming conscions of its own innate strength. A stream of Greek colonisation now set in, following in the opposite direction to that of the Phœnicians. Greek ships came in crowds to Cyprus, and the two nations entered on a long continued struggle for maritime and commercial supremacy. Fortune finally decided in favour of the new comers, whose small scattered trading ports developed into large communities, and whose language first mingled itself with those of the Jews and Phœnicians, and then supplanted them; while the cultivation of Grecian art was soon followed by the worship of Aphrodite at the old altars of Astarte.

During the centuries which witnessed the long contest between the two races of colonists, the island experienced various changes of rulers. At the time when the Phœnicians succeeded in establishing an united independent kingdom on the coast of Syria, the powerful city of Tyre owned Cyprus, but about the year 720 B.C., the islanders rebelled, became independent, and set up various small kingdoms, as at Paphos, Salamis, Kition, &c., which warred fiercely among themselves for two centuries following, till at last, in the year 550 B.C., the whole island was annexed to the Egyptian kingdom of Amasis I. This rule proved hard to the restless population, so that when the conquests of Cambyses led him to Egypt, the Cypriotes turned eagerly to the rising sun, and willingly became subjects of Persia, under which they remained till B.C. 477, with the exception of one short period of rebellion.

It was chiefly in Cyprian ships that Xerxes crossed the Hellespont in his unfortunate expedition against Greece. The decisive defeats of Salamis and Platæa, soon turned the thoughts of the Persians from attack to defence, and the fleets of Greece, under Pausanais, of Sparta, anchored before Byzantium, as those of Persia had done before Athens, crossing over to the Asiatic islands of the Ægean Sea and onwards to Cyprus, on which were fought many bloody combats between the two nations, ending in the forced abandonment of it by Persia. The reign of the conquerors did not, however, long continue. Evagoras, of Salamis, who had declared his independence of Sparta and founded a flourishing kingdom in Cyprus, was soon attacked by overwhelming Persian forces and, upon the defeat of an Athenian fleet sent to his aid, was obliged to shut himself up in Salamis, and after a long and gallant defence, to surrender to the arms of Artaxerxes, the island being subsequently definitely annexed to

the Persian crown by the famous peace of Antalcidas. The Greek population, greatly oppressed in the succeeding years, took refuge in the mountains and maintained a varying, but on the whole, hopeless guerilla war against their tyrants. Their deliverance and the revival of an insular Greek national enthusiasm was brought about by the rise and glorious career of Alexander the Great.

Darius Codomanus was compelled to recall his garrison, and the decisive battle of the Granicus made Cyprus once more independent under a prince of their own, who hastened to send troops and ships to aid the conqueror. It was upon Cyprian decks that the great catapult towers were floated to batter the walls of Tyre. Cyprian naval architects accompanied Alexander during his victorious march to the Punjab, and by them were constructed the vessels which under command of his Admiral, Nearchus, transported the weary soldiers to Babylon, by way of the Indus, the Persian Gulf and the Euphrates. But the Macedonian Empire perished with its founder, who only appears rising in the dark night of history like a splendid meteor flaming across the heavens but to expire.

In the bloody wars of succession which followed between Antigonus, Antipater, Ptolemy, and Lysimachus, Cyprus and its coasts were often the scene of desperate combats, the population siding with one or the other competitor according to circumstances. At last victory declared for the Egyptian, Ptolemy Soter, and a period of peace seemed secure, when suddenly the powerful hosts of Antigonus and Demetrius Poliorketes appeared before Salamis, and again the Egyptians were driven out, but the battle of Ipsus shattered to pieces the power of Antigonus and enabled Ptolemy to regain his lost supremacy. Then began the fourth epoch of the island, under the dominion of Egypt (as successor to that of Phonicia, of Greece, and of Persia), which lasted for two centuries. The Ptolemies left to the island princes a nominal independence, but the supreme ruler was effectively represented by an Egyptian administrator in Salamis, who enforced such a heavy tribute of gold and shipping as left no doubt of the real vassaldom of the country to the Egyptian throne.

Owing to this political subjection, the manners and customs of the East soon began to revive in the domain of the Grecian Aphrodite. No longer did her priests stand proudly on the steps of the Paphian temple in order to foretell the future according to the line of flight chosen by a flock of released doves, and declare whether the coming autumn should bring with it joy or sorrow. If they bore to the westward, where lay the hills, he turned away with looks of sadness, for that was a presage of speedy ill fortune; if to the south, joyful shouts and rejoicings spread along from district to district, the temples and houses were decked with myrtles and flowers, and everyone looked confidently for a glorious

harvest and vintage. The Egyptian Government suppressed these joyful feasts, and kept the people occupied with hard work in the mines and forests. But now came the time when the conquering Romans appeared on the scene, to subdue Italy, to destroy their Mediterranean rival, Carthage, and with her the Asiatic kings, among whom Hannibal had found shelter and succour. The Syrian Antiochus was laid in the dust, and the Ptolemies trembled in their towers before the advancing tide of Roman conquest, voluntarily abandoning Cyprus, which Cato, the Senates victrious general, found no difficulty in converting into a province of Rome in the year 57, B.C.

In the room of an Egyptian Prefect a Roman Pro-consul now held sway in Paphos, while Roman law protected the newly acquired freedom. Trade and commerce again sprang up, for the politic Romans were quite aware of the island's value, and sought the means of developing its resources by opening up roads and forming harbours. In the year 37, B.C., Antony, the Triumvir, bestowed Cyprus on his beautiful Cleopatra, and so, for a few years, this pearl again adorned the Egyptian crown, but the victorious Octavian shattered it to pieces by the battle of Actium, and transferred its jewels to his own imperial diadem. The Cypriotes became again the subjects of Rome, and sent their ambitious youth to the banks of the Tiber, there to strive for rank aud position in the imperial lists. Their native land developed more and more its wealth of corn, wine, and minerals, yielding a large yearly revenue to its new masters. About twenty years after Octavian's conquest, the Apostle Barnabas, was born in Cyprus, and in A.D. 40, St. Paul visited it, and converted many of its inhabitants to the new faith.

But beside this new pure worship, their spread widely the evil growth of a degenerated adoration of Venus, which in its degraded services betrayed a great relationship to that of the horrible Phœnician idol. Only by slow degrees could this be uprooted, but finally Christianity gained the ascendency, and there occurred a remarkable circumstance in connection with its victory. The dark visaged Astarte, which in the hands of the refined Greeks had been transformed into a beautifully fair attractive Aphrodite, underwent a third metamorphosis. To this day the people of Cyprus speak of the Mother of God as "Aphropitipa," and in the oldest pictures she is represented as perfectly black, though with fine features. Still, in her richly gilded aad silvered Icous, the face is covered, precisely as in remote ages the big black Ærolite, the idol representing Astarte-Venus, was kept by its priestesses reverently enveloped. To this day doves are offered on the altars of the Virgin Mary, an evident tradition of the ancient superstition.

The rising progress of Christianity experienced a severe trial through a rebellion of the Jews, who had become very numerous

in Cyprus under both the Egyptian and the Roman rule. These formed an extensive conspiracy under the guidance of one Actemius, without any known oppression justifying revolt, and succeeded in slaying almost every Roman and Christian found in the island, to the number, it is said, of nearly 250,000 souls! The Emperor, justly incensed, dispatched an army to the Levant, restored order in Cyprus, and revenged the murder of his citizens on the smoking ruins of Jerusalem. Then progressed rapidly the assailed Christianity, so that numerous bishoprics were founded in the island, which supplied a goodly number of saints to the Romish calendar, among them St. Lazarus, St. John Lampadista, St. Catharina, St. Maura, and very many others.

During the next three centuries history makes little mention of the island beyond recording its forming a favourite winter residence for the wealthy on account of its fine climate. In A.D., 365, upon the partition of the Roman Empire, Cyprus was assigned to Byzantium, and this sixth age of its history which corresponds to the line of separation between the early and the middle ages of the world, ushered in one of the most unfortunate periods in the experience of this gem of the Levant. Its government was necessarily committed to Satraps, on which followed repeated attempts at independence, then came earthquakes and fearful droughts, so that the island's prosperity dwindled away, and whatever property was gained by careful industry became too often the booty of pirates who infested the shores, and left behind as memorials of their visits, nothing but smoking villages and mutilated corpses, the Byzantine government being powerless to afford protection. In fact, it had then scarcely power sufficient to keep together the heterogeneous elements of which it was constituted, so that every external shock caused the old crumbling edifice to totter to its very foundation. The first mutterings of the storm, which was destined ultimately to overwhelm it, came forth out of the clouds of warlike fanatics who, following the standard of the Prophet, swarmed like locusts out of the deserts of Arabia, overran Syria, Palestine, and Phœnicia, falling subsequently upon the rich islands of the Levant, and taking possession of Cyprus in 648, almost without resistance. A period of fearful destruction followed. Every monument of the ancient civilisation perished under the hands of the savage conquerors, who spared neither life or property, selling into slavery many thousands of the wretched inhabitants. For a whole century all the efforts of the Greek Emperor to put a stop to the ravages of the Moslims utterly failed, the various fleets and expeditions fitted out for the purpose of conquest all miscarrying, but in 746, the energetic Constantine Copronymos carried out a bold stroke which restored the island to Constantinople for fifty-nine years. In 805, it fell again before the Saracens, and after its regain by Nicephorus II., in 964, it required many years before the island, reduced to a

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desert waste, in some degree recovered itself. But the wealth and splendour of ancient days were for centuries extinct. How indeed, could Cyprus be expected to revive, seeing that it belonged to an old worn out state in which even the heart had but little vital power, and none consequently to impart to the more distant members of the body?

Towards the end of the twelfth century, during the difficulties created for the empire by the first crusade, Comnenus, a governor of the imperial family, succeeded in declaring the island independent, and crowning himself as king of Cyprus. The Emperor made no serious attempt to dispossess him. Far greater dangers, however, threatened his new throne through the alliance of France and England with the chivalrous Barbarossa for the purpose of a new crusade, dangers to which the slender means at his disposal could offer no effectual resistance. Nevertheless, he had the extreme folly to rouse the wrath of the British king by surprising and plundering some vessels of his fleet which a storm had stranded on the coast of Cyprus. Richard Cœur-de-Lion was not the man to put up with such an affront; furious with rage he invaded the island at the head of his army, scattered the weak forces of Comnenus, and dragged the pirate himself from his usurped throne. Richard's banner floated proudly from the royal towers, English soldiers encamped in the shady cypress glades, and the soft island breezes played with the long pennants of the English war ships anchored in the harbour, a display now to be repeated after the lapse of seven centuries!

Cyprus was declared an English province, and the proud king inaugurated its annexation by celebrating with royal splendour, on the classic ground of Venus, his own marriage with the beautiful Berengaria of Navarre. It is not without interest to remark, that it is a statesman of Jewish extraction who has reclaimed for the crown of England this lost conquest of a monarch who signalized his accession by edicts against the Hebrews.

Leaving a small garrison in Cyprus, Richard put to sea in the summer of 1191, and on the 8th of June anchored before Ptolemais. Here the crusading army was joined by Guido de Lusignan, a scion of an old ruling family of Poiton, who, less through personal qualifications than a chain of fortunate occurrences, had been crowned King of Jerusalem, but who had soon lost his kingdom in an inglorious struggle with the chivalrous sultan Saladin. Philip Augustus was by no means well disposed to this prince, whose past career was far from stainless, and favoured the pretensions of the Count of Monserrat. Richard at first espoused the cause of Lusignan, but ultimately, in consequence of the objection of his ally, gave it up and agreed to the coronation of Conrad of Monserrat. After his assasination by an emissary of the Old Man of the Mountain, Richard, victorious over Saladin, bestowed the kingdom of Jerusalem on his sister's son, Henry of

Champagne, and compensated the dispossessed Lusignam by the gift of Cyprus, which thus, after a brief period of British rule, became again an independent kingdom. Guido bequeathed his crown in 1194 to his brother Amalrich, and it remained in his family till 1743. The successors of Guido were brave and skilful men, who estimated rightly the great value of their kingdom, and laboured unweariedly to promote the welfare of their subjects.

In an island of such great natural resources such efforts could not fail to be crowned with success. Art and commerce bloomed anew, the cultivation of the vine and the development of mines soon attained an extent which recalled the happiest days of antiquity; wealthy merchants again took up their abode in the seaports of the island, and Famagusta took its place, with justifiable pride, in the rank of a leading city of the East, as one of the great entrepôts of the flourishing commerce between Asia and Europe. Among all the little Christian princedoms of the East, founded during the Crusades, Cyprus shone conspicously forth. The Lusignans were the teachers and champions of Christian chivalry, the protectors of the Christian faith, of the religious orders, and of all the fugitive monks expelled from Palestine, the promoters of commerce and of the arts. Lofty Gothic domes and grand abbeys with splendid halls were now raised on the very spots where formerly had stood the temples of Astarte, Aphrodite, and Venus.

Towards the end of the fifteenth century the legitimate descendants of Lusignam, died out and the crown devolved upon Jacob, a natural son of the last king, whose wife was a great grand-daughter of the celebrated Doge, Marco Cornaro, through whom, a century previous, the rich island of Crete had been subjected to the Adriatic Republic. Catherine Cornaro shared the throne with her husband for five years only, for in 1473, Jacob, the last scion of the kings of Jerusalem, descended to the grave, leaving to his widow a throne which no solitary woman could unsupported maintain. The crafty trading rulers of Venice had long cast covetous glances upon the sparkling jewel, and now, with deep policy, the Republic assumed a sort of protectorate over the bereaved kingdom, declaring Catharina, as a descendant of their Doge, to be a "Daughter of St. Mark." This fatherly protectorate soon developed into a guardianship, which threw every possible difficulty in the way of the Queen's government, so that she finally became utterly disgusted, resigned her crown in favour of Venice, and withdrew to her seat at Ailo, near Treviso, where she died in 1510, deeply lamented by her former subjects, and truly with only too good reason. With her ended the glorious age of insular independence, the long succession of happy years which had passed over so enjoyably under the sway of the liberal-minded Lusignans. An epoch now commenced like that in which the Persian Satrap at Salamis plundered, with contemptuous greed,

all the produce of wood, mountain, and plain, for truly the Venetians came no whit behind the rulers of Persepolis in rapacity, as regarded the filling of their own granaries and coffers. The whole population in those sad times lost their active thriving appearance, and sank into that state of languid and stupid existence which has never since been shaken off. Venice managed the island as simply as a valuable farm, from which it was desired to extract the highest possible return. The three Landregents, the two Treasurers, the Proveditore with his thousand Albanians, and the Captains with their companies, in each of the twelve districts, preserved order, enforced cultivation and regular payment of taxes, every pursuit that promised profit being pushed to the utmost. The tradition prevails in the island, to this day, it is said, that the Venetians gave a gold sequim premium for every newly-planted olive tree. After deduction of all expenses Cyprus returned the Republic a yearly clear profit of a million of gold dollars. The Greek Empire, in the meanwhile, had been overthrown by the Osmanli forces. On the 26th May, 1453, Mahomed II. had entered Byzantium over the ruins of its walls and the body of the last Constantine, raising the Crescent in place of the Cross on the dome of St. Sophia; then rolled the tide of victory onwards over Epirus, the Morea, and the islands of the Archipelago. A century of frightful warfare swept over Europe which was only succeeded by the greatest exertions in repelling the furious attacks of Soliman the Glorious. After the death of that formidable barbarian, in 1566, the power of the Ottoman Empire remained chiefly in the hands of energetic Viziers. Such was Mohammed Sokolli, who appeared one day before his master Selim II. (surnamed "The Drunkard") and uttered the following memorable words, which now, in our own day, have found a still more powerful voice to echo them; "Whoever," said he, "desires to rule firmly, and all together, Asia Minor, Syria and Egypt, needs to have Cyprus for his first line." Selim had no idea of such far-seeing policy, but he set a great value on the fine wine of Cyprus, so war was at once declared against Venice, and a powerful army formed, which a strong fleet landed upon the island. Marco Antonino Bragadino, the brave Venetian commander, found himself unable to cope with the overwhelming force of the Turks in the field, and was therefore obliged to withdraw to the strong fortifications of Famagusta. Here during eleven weary months he defended himself with the courage of a lion against the desperate assaults of the Turks, looking anxiously for succour from Italy. During that sad year of 1571, unheard of cruelties were perpetrated by the Turks throughout the island. Every time that their attacking columns were driven back with murderous slaughter from the walls, they revenged the defeat by indiscriminate slaughter of the old men, the women and children. At last hunger compelled a capitulation, which was wholly disregarded as

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soon as the impregnable gates were thrown upon. The garrison was slaughtered, and the brave commander slayed, in order that his stuffed skin might adorn the Admiral's yardarm! Cyprus was lost to Christendom, and the deadly crushing hand of Islam laid upon it. Its loss was so far revenged by Don John of Austria in the glorious battle of Lepanto a few months later, but as the Venetians made no serious efforts at reconquest, this victory was not followed by the expected results, and when the Venetian Ambassador at Constantinople assumed a lofty tone in consequence of it, the Vizier Sokolli laughed at him, remarking, "Yes, you have cut off our beard, but we, through taking Cyprus, have cut off your right arm."

The Turkish rule has been but one persistently continous slow decay: the rich treasures of the country have remained neglected for centuries, and nothing has been done to revive the commerce which once flourished there so richly. The rulers have allowed towns, roads and ports to go to ruin everywhere, taking no thought for the welfare of the inhabitants. By slow degrees the Greek population has recovered from the frightful slaughter of the sixteenth century, and of late years has gained ground considerably upon the gradually dwindling Turkish race. In 1833 the island was for a short time once more under the rule of Egypt, when Mehemed Ali, who had shortly before put a garrison there, received the formal invertinent from the Sultan. In 1840, however, it reverted again under the direct rule of Constantinople, and has so remained till now. What great strokes of fate have affected the destinies of this island in the thousands of years we have now reviewed! Slaughter and conquest alternating like the rulers who have worn its crown. Now again, under the lofty ægis of Britain, Cyprus may be expected to regain its former importance to a great extent, commerce and trade arising anew to repeople the ports where the ships of imperial Rome, then ruler of the world, were wont to anchor.

NOTES ON THE HISTORY AND SERVICES OF THE EIGHTY-SIXTH REGIMENT OF FOOT (*Continued.*)

The Eighty-Sixth (the Rutland) Foot of 1779—1783.

Among the "loyalty"* Regiments of the period of the old American War was one raised at the expense of Charles, fourth

* Regiments raised by public subscription or by private noblemen and gentlemen were so called. Amongst them were the 72nd (Royal Manchester Volunteers), 79th (Royal Liverpool Volunteers), 80th (Royal Edinburgh Volunteers), 82nd (Duke of Hamilton's), 83rd (Royal Glasgow Volunteers), 85th (Westminster Volunteers), 86th (Duke of Rutland's), 99th (Jamaica), and amongst the unnumbered regiments the Royal Lancashire Volunteers, the Yorkshire Volunteers or Yorkshire Buffs, the Loyal Irish, &c. All were disbanded on the Peace of 1783.

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Duke of Rutland,* which became the 86th (or Rutland) Regiment of Foot, the second of the three corps which have borne that number. Like its compeers, it had an establishment of ten companies, with four sergeants, four corporals, two drummers, and seventy privates to each, besides two fifers for the grenadier company, and the usual proportion of commissioned officers, and, like them, was recruited exclusively by voluntary enlistment. The order for the formation of the regiment was dated 2nd July, 1779. The command was given to Lieut.-Col. Anthony St. Leger, who had served in Germany, as a captain in the 3rd Dragoons, and afterwards had commanded the 124th Queen's Irish of 1762. The rendezvous was fixed at Newark and Grantham, where the Manners' influence reigned supreme; bounties of eight or ten guineas per man were provided out of the ducal coffers; and the recruits appear to have come in pretty readily.† The recruiting was general, as we find orders for a company of the regiment raised at Bristol, and also for sundry detachments of recruits collected from time to time at Barnet, to march to the rendezvous. In September, 1779, the regiment was sufficiently complete to be moved to St. Albans, and forms the subject of a rather mysterious entry in the War Office "Marching Orders," which runs thus (*verb. et lit*):—"It is H. M. pleasure . . . . . notwithstanding any former orders, that you cause the regiment of Foot under your command to be quartered at St. Albans, *and such adjacent places only as you shall think proper*, until further orders."

The date is 27th October, 1779. A few days later we found another Order for the regiment to proceed from St. Albans to Plymouth.

Under date 12th April, 1780, an Order appears for the regiment to embark for the West Indies with the 87th and 91st Regiments, the 86th being relieved at Plymouth by the 75th from Tiverton. The strength on embarkation, according to a return in the *Annual Register* for 1780, was 30 officers, 30 sergeants, 37 corporals, 22 drummers, and 592 rank and file. Of its movements in the West Indies during its two years' sojourn there we have scarcely any account. The greater part of the time appears to have been passed in the island of St. Lucia, where Colonel St. Leger commanded with the rank of brigadier-general.

The flank companies of the regiments in the Leeward Islands command (including, it is presumed, those of the 86th), were formed into a flank corps, which served in the landing effected at St. Vincents in December, 1780, and afterwards at the capture of the Dutch islands of Saba, and St. Eustatius (where three millions sterling of prize, including £250,000 in specie, which Admiral

* Afterwards Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland.

† One of the public prints of the day tells us, "The Volunteer Corps come in very slowly, except those of the Duke of Rutland and Lord Harrington, which have been filled by the public spirit of their colonels. The fact is," adds this sage chronicler, with an assumption of knowledge worthy some of his descendants, "that men do not care to serve under the present Administration." Poor Tommy Atkins!

Rodney ordered to be sent to the army in America, was captured). Detachments were also employed at various times as marines on board Lord Rodney's fleet.

Two companies of the 86th—Captains Monckton's and Manner's* —under command of Major the Hon. Fitzroy Stanhope, were in garrison at Tobago when that island was very unnecessarily surrendered to the French by Lieut.-Governor Ferguson in June, 1781. These companies were sent prisoners to France, where they remained until the end of the war. The head-quarters were at St. Lucia, when an attempt was made on that island in the same year by 2000 French troops from Martinique, and gallantly repulsed. Further details we find none.

The following year most of the men fit to serve, and not being prisoners of war, appear to have been transferred to the 27th Inniskillings, and the head-quarters returned to Plymouth.

On 26th April, 1783, the remains of the regiment were disbanded at York. The officers were placed upon half-pay, and the non-commissioned officers and men, not being in French prisons, amounting to 14 sergeants, 1 corporal, 11 drummers and 22 privates, were that day discharged, receiving fourteen days subsistence money to carry them from York to their respective homes.

And so the second 86th Foot became numbered with the past.

THE EIGHTY-SIXTH ("SHROPSHIRE VOLUNTEERS," AFTERWARDS THE "LEINSTER," NOW THE "ROYAL COUNTY DOWN") REGIMENT OF FOOT. FROM 1793 TO THE PRESENT TIME.

In October, 1793, just eight months after England had declared war against the French National Convention, permission was given to Major-General Cornelius Cuyler to raise a corps of infantry, which is the present 86th Royal County Down. The following is a transcript of the beating Order:—

"To Our Trusty and Well-beloved Cornelius Cuyler, Esquire, Major-General in Our Army, and Colonel of a Regiment of Foot, to be henceforth raised."

"Geo. R. Whereas we have thought fit to order a regiment of Foot forthwith to be raised under your command, which is to consist of Ten companies, with three sergeants, three corporals, two drummers, and fifty-seven private-men in each company, with two fifers for the Grenadier company, besides a serjeant-major and quartermaster-sergeant, together with the usual complement of commissioned officers. These are to authorise you by beat of drum or otherwise to raise so many men in any county or part of Our Kingdom of Great Britain as shall be wanted to complete the above regiment to the above mentioned numbers.

* Afterwards General Robert Manners. This officer, after an exchange of prisoners, was promoted to a majority in the old 80th Edinburgh Volunteers, and subsequently served many years in the 3rd Foot Guards. He was a favourite equerry of King George III. He died in 1823.

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"And all Mayors, Justices of the Peace, Constables, and other of our civil officers whom it may concern are hereby required to be aiding and assisting of you in providing quarters, impressing carriages, and otherwise as there shall be occasion.

"Given at Our Court of St. James's, this 1st day of November, 1793, in the 34th year of Our reign.

"By His Majesty's command.

"(Signed) GEORGE YOUNG."

The regiment is stated to have been raised principally in Shropshire, Lancashire, and the West Riding of Yorkshire. The rendezvous was fixed at Shrewsbury. The corps was known at first as the "Shropshire Volunteers," but this title does not appear in the *Army Lists* of the period. The uniform was red with yellow facings.

Amongst the officers appointed to companies in the regiment on its formation was Captain Rowland Hill, afterwards General Lord Hill, whose commission as captain was dated 23rd March, 1793, and who served with it until promoted to a majority in the 90th Perthshire Volunteers, in May, 1794.*

In the spring of 1794, the Shropshire Volunteers, now the 86th, together with the 85th Bucks Volunteers, and some other new corps, were ordered to Ireland. The 86th marched from Shrewsbury to Parkgate, where it embarked for Dublin, and on landing proceeded to Kilkenny.

After a couple of months sojourn there, the regiment returned to England, and, landing at Bristol, was quartered at Frome and Warminster, whence it proceeded in the summer of 1794 to Southampton, and afterwards to the Isle of Wight.

Here the steadiness and good conduct of the young battalion led to its selection for the unpopular but onerous duty of serving as marines on board the Channel Fleet.

Accordingly, early in January, 1795, 8 officers and 414 non-commissioned officers and men of the regiment embarked for this purpose on board the 'Prince of Wales,' 98, Captain Bazeley; 'Triumph,' 74, Captain Sir Erasmus Gower; 'Brunswick,' 74, Captain Lord Charles Fitzgerald, and 'Hector,' 74, Captain Montague.

Some days later, 7 officers and 276 non-commissioned officers and men embarked, in like manner, on board the 'Prince,' 98, Captain J. Hamilton; 'Saturn,' 74, Captain James Douglas, and

* No mention of Lord Hill's connection with the regiment appears in his "Life," written by the Rev. E. Sidney. The following memorandum explains the date of his appointment as captain (from lieutenant 53rd Foot): "I raised an Independant company, and on March 23rd this year (1793) I got my commission as captain. The men were chiefly raised in Shropshire, and were approved by General Fox at Chatham. I embarked on April 12th with this company for Ireland, in the 'Aurora' transport, arrived at Cork in the course of a week, and marched thence by orders from Sir D. Dundas to Belfast about the end of April, where I handed the men of my company over to the 38th Regiment, and returned to Shropshire about June." —*Life of Lord Hill.*

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'Boyne,' 98, Captain G. Grey,—all which vessels were then at Portsmouth.

The first incidents of importance in their career afloat were the cruise in the North Sea with Admiral Hervey, in March, and the burning of H.M.S. 'Boyne.' On 1st May, 1794, during the absence of her captain at a court-martial on board another vessel, the 'Boyne,' then lying at Spithead, and on board which the grenadier company of the 86th were serving as marines, took fire. The cause of the accident was never clearly ascertained. The *Annual Register* assumes it to have been caused either by a live cartridge from the muskets of one of the soldiers, who had been practising on the windward side of the vessel, having fallen into one of the stern cabins, or by the overheating of a flue therein. Fortunately the greater part of the powder had been sent on shore some days previously; but a fresh breeze was blowing, and it being ebb-tide, the vessels were riding with their sterns to the wind, so that the flames spread rapidly, and in the course of half an hour the tops and the greater part of the rigging were in flames. Most of the ship's company saved themselves by jumping overboard, when they were picked up by boats sent to their assistance. The guns, in the fashion of the day, were all loaded and double-shotted, and as they became heated, went off, dropping their shot amidst the neighbouring vessels, and on the shore. Two seamen of the 'Queen Charlotte' were thus killed. About 2 p.m., after the turn of the tide, her cables having burned through, the ill-fated ship began slowly to drift, the flames streaming from every port-hole, until, at 5 p.m., when off the Spit opposite Southsea Castle, with a terrific explosion, heard miles away, she blew up, scattering her shot and timbers far and wide, and involving the shore boats which had hovered round her in the general destruction. Eleven of the ship's company were reported to have lost their lives by the disaster. The 86th Grenadiers, more fortunate, escaped with the loss of the whole of their kits and appointments.

It was during this month, if we mistake not, that the regiment, or rather certain detachments of it, received the baptism of fire.

On 30th May, the 'Triumph' and 'Brunswick' sailed from Spithead with a squadron under command of Vice-Admiral Hon. W. Cornwallis, for a cruise off Ushant. On 8th June, about 10 a.m., the squadron made the land off about the Penmarks, and half an hour afterwards, the 'Triumph' signalled six sail in sight. These, and other vessels seen about the same time, proved to be the squadron of Rear-Admiral Vence, who, with a numerous convoy in charge, was returning to Brest. Having laid to until he discovered that the vessels in chase were enemy's cruisers, the French Admiral steered away for Belle Isle under press of sail. At 2 p.m. the 'Triumph,' 74, 'Phæton,' frigate, and 'Kingfisher,' brig of war, then considerably ahead of their companions, the

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'Brunswick,' 74, being hull-down astern, commenced firing at the enemy. Finding it impossible for the rest of the squadron to arrive in time to prevent the French getting under the island, within the southern point of which they then were, Admiral Cornwallis made the signal to chase. At 4 p.m. two French frigates were chased to the south-west, one with a large Dutch ship in tow, which she abandoned to the British as they approached, and the two crowded away to join their admiral, who had come to an anchor.* Shots were interchanged between the British advanced ships and the batteries on Belle Isle, until the 'Triumph' and 'Phaeton,' shoaling their water, made the signal of danger, and Admiral Cornwallis recalled the chase. On the following day, the squadron, with eight French merchantmen, which had been captured, steered for Scilly, whence the prizes were sent into Plymouth, the admiral standing back again to the southward to look out for Rear-Admiral Vence.

On 12th June, the 'Prince of Wales,' 98, Captain Bazeley, carrying the flag of Rear-Admiral Hervey, and 'Prince,' 98, Captain Hamilton, with twelve other sail of the line, six frigates and three sloops, forming the Channel fleet, under the command of Admiral Lord Bridport, sailed from St. Helens for a cruise to the westward, carrying detachments of the 86th and 118th.

On 16th June, the squadron under Vice-Admiral Cornwallis being then standing in with the land near the Penmarks, descried in the offing a fleet of the enemy ahead, which was found to consist of thirteen sail of the line, fourteen frigates, two brigs, and a cutter, in all *thirty* vessels, to oppose which the British had in all *eight* ships only. The enemy were more to leeward of the British squadron, standing on a wind with all sail set. In the evening, near half of their ships tacked in shore, and the wind coming round to northward off the land brought these ships to windward, while the remainder laid up for the squadron. Before daylight the next morning, the enemy was seen upon both quarters of the squadron as if meditating a vigorous attack, and about 9 a.m. all their frigates were ranged abreast, and to windward of the British. The attack was now commenced by a line of battle ship and a frigate engaging the 'Mars,' 74.' The British squadron kept close compact order, whilst the French line of battle-ships came up in succession, keeping up a teasing fire at intervals throughout the day, which the British returned with their stern-chasers. The Admiral, proportioning his sail to the slowest of the squadron, lent his support where it was requisite. Thus the day wore on, the French showing no desire to try closer conclusions. In the evening, the 'Mars,' 74, having fallen to windward the enemy seemed disposed to make a more serious attack upon her, but the Admiral bore up to her support and they drew off again. This was their last effort, and towards sunset they bore away.

* James' "Naval History."

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On the day following the Vice-Admiral returned his thanks to the different ships in the squadron in the following terms:—

"'Royal Sovereign,' June 18th, 1795.

"Vice-Admiral Cornwallis returns his sincere thanks to the captains, officers, seamen and marines of the ships of the fleet under his orders, for their steady and gallant conduct in the presence of the French fleet yesterday, which firmness, he has no doubt, deterred the enemy from making a more serious attack. It would give the Vice-Admiral pleasure to put the whole of their exertions in effect by meeting a more equal force, when the country would receive advantage, as it now does honour, from the spirit so truly manifested by its brave men."

In November following the thanks of Parliament were unanimously voted to the "Admiral, captains, officers, seamen, marines, and soldiers," for the "skill, judgment, and determined courage displayed on the above occasion."

(*To be continued.*)

LIFE IN SIBERIA.

I spent a fortnight in Tomsk, acquiring all the information I could before accompanying my employer to the mine for which I was to construct a road. It lay on the border of a chain of hills, along which ran a tributary of the Jenesei. The diggings had been but lately opened, and as trials had proved the existence of a stratum of rich golden sand, it was urgently needed to establish a good road to them. I soon saw that this would be no very difficult undertaking. The hills were not very high, nor were their slopes very steep, so that I could easily make a zig-zag road, quite practicable for the light one-horsed peasant carts. A more serious task lay before me in bridging a swamp, some miles in extent, across which my new road must go, or otherwise make a very long detour to turn it. As there were plenty of birch trees and stunted pines at hand, I thought I might manage to lay a foundation with fascines, on which to raise a causeway, but if anything was to be done in the current year, there was not a day to be lost, as after the middle of October work is impossible, from the great cold and the snow. On the edge of the hills there was an old blockhouse and some sheds in which it was decided I should establish myself. Truly, neither the house nor the place itself were at all inviting, but there was no use in thinking of that, as certainly it was not to enjoy myself that I had come to Siberia. The first requirement was to find a decent assistant, who could make himself useful, as I could not well manage all the details of the work unaided, and here fortune favoured us greatly. In the year 1849, a Polish student, at the Universety of Kiew, got mixed up in some revolutionary intrigues, for which he was exiled to Siberia, and was then employed as a

Government clerk in Tomsk. The Governor was much interested in this young and most respectable man, whose youthful folly had drawn down upon him so sad a fate, and anxious to better his prospects, proposed he should become my assistant. In this plan we cordially concurred, for the poor fellow was well educated, good at pen and figures, knew something of drawing, and enough of mathematics to enable him to learn surveying readily. He proved an excellent helper to me during two years, and many a lonely hour have we whiled away together in agreeable conversation. During that time he acquired such a complete knowledge of everything connected with road-making, that he was able to fill the position of an independent engineer in the service of a large mining company, receiving an excellent salary. Meanwhile he managed to win the affections of the pretty daughter of a thriving merchant in Tomsk, in which enterprise I acted the part of a go-between, and contributed considerably to his success, so that, after all, Fate did much to console him for his early misfortunes.

We now hired from the Government twenty convicts who had nearly served their time, to become settlers. There were no politicals among them, all having been regular thieves or confirmed vagabonds. About one half of the number proved themselves useful fellows and good workmen, with whom I soon became quite content, but the rest were low blackguards who could only be kept at work by relentless severity. I am certainly by no means inclined to harshness, and corporal punishment has always been most repulsive to my feelings, but here I found myself obliged to use it very freely. My men were always being changed, the best of them becoming settlers, and others discharged by me as useless, sickly, or refractory altogether, though this was rare. I, of course, got others in their places, many of whom were no better than their predecessors. In this way I have had at least a hundred of these convicts under my orders. The most cunning were always the St. Petersburg fellows, especially those transported for theft and roguery. A *ci-devant* dandy shopman, or a nobleman's livery servant, who had never known what real hard work meant, took very badly to wheeling a barrow the whole day, or standing up to the waist in water tying fascines. Once I had under me the former private secretary of a man of rank, who had robbed his master of a large sum, and escaped abroad, but was caught and delivered up to the authorities. The fellow was extremely clever, spoke nearly every living language, expressed himself extremely well, verbally or in writing, and possessed a host of *talents de société*, but was nevertheless a thorough scoundrel, and tried to rob me more than once. I ordered him more than one sound licking, but, finding that of no use, had to send him back to his prison work. Another time I had a lithographer, transported for forgery, a useful quiet man, but too weak for hard labour, so that I afterwards got him a situation in the office of a mining company. To look after my people I had always

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three or four police soldiers. These were willing and obedient fellows, but generally coarse, stupid men, who tried to get drunk whenever they had the chance, and to whom I personally administered many a cut. For steward and overseer I had a discharged sergeant, who brought with him a wife, a half-grown daughter, and a filthy sluttish servant-maid, whose abominable appearance did not prevent her having rather too many admirers among the workmen and soldiers. My own personal wants were attended to by my faithful and useful servant, who had accompanied me from Sevastopol.

On the 20th of August I took possession of my lonely station, with quite a small caravan. Household goods and a good supply of provisions filled a number of small carts. Six miserable cows, two riding-horses, and several fierce and watchful wolf-hounds, peculiar to the country, followed in the rear. The second day saw us safe at our destination. As it was already too late in the season to begin the road-making, our attention was given to executing all the preliminary works which might enable us to commence the main undertaking at the earliest possible period in spring. There were so many various things to be done that I hardly knew how to set about them all. We began with the house where my assistant and I were to live, had it cleaned out, all its chinks stuffed with moss, a huge stove built, and the windows filled with plates of thin talc, a local substitute for glass. By means of carpets, mats, and our little stock of furniture, we gave the place, in the course of eight days, a habitable appearance, though certainly there was much wanting still to make it comfortable. The small room was occupied by two beds, and the large one served as study and parlour, while in the little kitchen my servant dwelt and cooked. The soldiers, the labourers and the sergeant slept and messed in the large shed, where they had prepared beds of dry moss. For the sergeant's family we had put up a little block-house with stable, all made of the timber at hand, and thatched with bent and moss. We also cut down a quantity of the luxuriant grass, growing several feet high, to make hay for winter use. Then we had a good piece of ground ploughed up to be ready for the spring sowing of rye, and planting vegetables. All these and numerous other jobs required a great deal of exertion, and an incessant ordering, regulating, scolding, and even hearty thrashing, so that when bed-time came, I lay down dead tired. My young Pole, my servant, and also the sergeant, did their best to help on the work, which was greatly facilitated by the great talent for mechanics which almost every Russian displays when sharply looked after. That is indispensable, for without continual overlooking and urging, the Russians in general will do very little.

In the end of September my employer paid us a visit and overwhelmed us with compliments on the surprising progress we had made. He gave all the people employed a present, and in this,

and every other respect, always showed himself a kind-hearted and liberal man. During the whole of August the weather continued extremely fine, the days being often oppressively warm, and this lasted up to the middle of September. Then we began to have sharp frosts at night, the days continuing fine and sunny. In the latter end of September the stream, about a mile from us, began to freeze over, and snow fell, remaining unmelted. We could now no longer work out of doors, nor could the people sleep in the ill-built sheds, so that on the 1st of October I sent every one back to Tomsk, except the sergeant and his family, who were to remain in charge of the place all the winter. They took refuge in the little log hut, and made the best of it. I was determined to hold out as long as possible, so as to profit by the frost to measure and lay out the road across the large swamp. In October the cold was, on an average, from 10° to 15° Fahrenheit below freezing, but yet we were able to work outside for five or six hours, clad in furs all over, with high waterproof fisher's boots over a variety of woollen underclothing. The snow was not yet more than from two to three feet deep, so that the sergeant and my servant were able, with a snow-plough, to open up the tracks we wanted to measure. We managed to stake out a line of road across the whole morass, so that in spring it could at once be began upon. About 4 p.m., the failing light and the increasing cold drove us indoors, where we had always a warm room and a well-supplied table. A thick cabbage soup, and beef which had been kept frozen, then thawed and cooked, formed the standing dishes, with the occasional variety of a dish of fish or wildfowl. Sometimes, instead of coffee, we had delicious tea, flavoured with rum. From 6 to 8 p.m. we worked at our plans and calculations, and from 8 to 11 we played chess, or sang respectively Polish and German ballads, which I accompanied on an old guitar I had picked up at Tomsk. So passed the hours, very pleasantly, without any feeling of *ennui*. On moonlight nights I often went wolf-hunting with the sergeant. These brutes abounded in the neighbourhood, and their hungry howls often resounded all night long round our quarters. During my stay we shot about a dozen between us, using their skins for foot-rugs and for lining sledges. Sometimes, urged by hunger, they used to try and scrape under the door of our stable, to get at the cattle. On such occasions our savage dogs chained inside used to set up a fearful yelling till we let them loose, and set them at the pack. They often killed their antagonists, but did not escape without severe injuries in return, so that at last we gave up this game, and contented ourselves with a few shots at the wolves when they became too bold. Wolves abound in Siberia, and must, in winter either starve, or prey on each other. If they are not hungry a man with a stout stick can put a whole pack to flight; but, if starving, they will attack one with the greatest fierceness, so that in winter we never ventured out without a gun and an escort of

dogs. The large bears, who are also very numerous, are far less dangerous. They live on berries, or on the nuts of the cedar trees, which are plentiful here, and sleep through the winter in a deep sheltered cave. They fly from man, never attacking him unless previously wounded. Soon after arriving at my station, I had the luck to kill a large bear, which charged me furiously with a loud roar, my first barrel having only wounded him in the side. Fortunately for me I had with me two of our fierce wolf-hounds, who instantly rushed at him, and fastening their teeth in his hide, succeeded in checking his rush, so that I had time to take a steady aim with the second barrel, shooting him dead on the spot with a ball between his eyes. Without dogs it is very dangerous for a single sportsman to attack a bear, as it is only in a few places that a ball will wholly disable him, and, if only wounded, their rage and great activity make them extremely formidable. Among the Jakuts, nevertheless, there are hunters who frequently kill bears single-handed, with only a long sharp knife for a weapon. Holding this in their right hand, and having the left arm so protected by sheepskins that even the bite of a bear cannot injure it, they endeavour to bring the brute to bay, and when he stands up to fight, thrusting the one arm down his throat, with the other they stab him to the heart at a single blow. No doubt it requires a very courageous, strong, and active hunter to perform this dangerous exploit, but among the Jakuts it is frequently accomplished.

In the middle of November the thermometer went down to 5° Fahrenheit, and it was no longer possible to do any work outside, except wood-cutting. The snow, too, began to fall heavily, and with such violence that for some days it prevented us leaving the house at all. I resolved, therefore, to start for Tomsk as soon as the storm should cease. On the 22nd the temperature was 3° below Zero, with a fine clear atmosphere, and we got ready our sledge for a start. We put to it three small but strong rough nags, which I had reserved for the purpose, took a supply of provisions and a lot of dry fuel, as it was very doubtful whether we should not have to bivouac on the snow at night, also a number of carefully loaded guns and pistols, to be ready for the chance of a pack of hungry wolves, and away we started. We left the sergeant, his family, and one convict, a decent good fellow, in possession of all our house, except the bedroom, in which I had locked up our things. They had before them the prospect of four or five months in the wilderness, without any variety; but as they had ample provisions, including a keg of brandy, four dogs, and plenty of ammunition for their guns, there seemed no chance of their coming to grief in any respect, and they seemed perfectly contented with their lot. In fact a true Siberian very much resembles a bear, as regards his winter sleep, for they will often snore away for fifteen or sixteen hours at a stretch. As the snow was very deep and pathless, our progress at first was very slow and difficult. We had

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repeatedly to get out and walk to ease the horses, and also to clear a way for the sledge with shovels brought for the purpose. It became dark at 3 p.m., but the starlight and snow together made it clear enough for us to journey notwithstanding. About midnight our sturdy, enduring ponies were quite exhausted, and we had to halt for some hours. We looked out for a place where a slope gave some shelter from the wind, and where there were numerous birch trees to afford us fuel for a roaring fire. While my servant cleared away the snow, we cut down sufficient wood, and with our own dry twigs soon had a bonfire to warm us and boil our tea. It was so cold that the hot tea froze in the cups in the course of five minutes after being poured out boiling, and our rye-bread was hard as a stone, requiring to be thawed at the fire before we could cut it. Our fur pelisses were covered with frost on the side furthest from the fire, and our horses, who held their heads right over it, were perfectly white. We fed them with rye-bread soaked in tea, a very strengthening mixture for all animals. At the end of four hours, not very agreeably spent, we were all greatly refreshed, and started in good spirits. In the course of the day we reached a main road, where progress became much easier, and, finally, in the evening, after a second halt round a fire for some hours, got safe into Tomsk, where, over a fine bowl of hot punch, we soon forgot all our fatigues.

The winter in Siberia is certainly severe and long continued, but the people thoroughly understand the art of keeping warm. All the houses have double windows and double or even treble doors, so as to exclude every breath of cold air. The huge brick stoves called "Amossor," are a glorious invention, keeping a house warm day and night with a quantity of wood very moderate in proportion to the number of rooms heated. Even the poorest workmen have thick sheepskin pelisses, fur caps, and their legs all enveloped in sheepskins, while their feet are protected by wooden shoes lined with furs and stuffed with hay. In this way, when there is not much wind and the temperature is not much below Zero, they can spend some hours of the day out of doors; but when it falls very much lower, as is often the case, it is very dangerous to leave the house. At 12° below Zero of Fahrenheit, it is only the most urgent necessity that makes any one risk it, and then, in spite of all precautions, feet, nose, and ears are often frost-bitten. When the east wind prevails it is hard to endure even 4° under Zero. Travellers, policemen, and postillions overtaken by such weather often lose their lives. When the temperature falls below 12° there is generally a dead calm, as if the very atmosphere itself was frozen into stillness. In the residences of the wealthy folks, among whom I spent my winter, very little attention was given to the weather. Their life was one of constant gaiety and pleasure, spent in a constant round of expensive dinner, supper, and card parties, kept up half the night. Balls, too, were not unfrequent, and I got up an

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amateur theatre, where Russian plays were performed. There was also a great deal of music, in which my songs and guitar obtained great applause, and procured me numerous invitations. To avoid temptation, I had made a solemn resolution never to touch a card. Moreover this style of life was very expensive, so that, notwithstanding I had free quarters in my employer's house, I spent the whole of my pay. Certainly, prices were high. Eight francs for a pair of gloves, half as much for a small bottle of Eau de Cologne, and from sixty to eighty francs for a pair of lacquered dress boots, all which articles were in constant requisition in our society. To have some relief from pure idleness, I volunteered to help my employer in his books and accounts for a couple of hours every morning, for which he was much obliged, and made me a present of a splendid pelisse of sable fur at Christmas.

Whenever the weather would allow, I spent a couple of hours in walking or sledge-driving, and occasionally I accompanied some of my military friends on a peculiar sort of moonlight wolf-hunting. Half-a-dozen of us used to go in a long low sledge, in which we had three strong steady horses, well-used to stand fire. We put a servant on the box beside the driver, with a bag containing a couple of pigs, whose tails he pinched as soon as we got into the country, so that their squeaking might attract their hungry admirers all round. As soon as a pack of wolves appeared, we threw out a bag full of offal, and let it trail behind the sledge by a very strong rope about seventy yards long. Our friends soon scented it, and eagerly set to work to tear out the contents, when, if there were many about it, we gave them a general volley, often killing three or four at once. Yet they were often so fierce from hunger, that they stood repeated salvos before dispersing. Indeed this sport is by no means devoid of risk, for at times the starved brutes will boldly attack the horses, so that one must always have pistols in reserve, and a supply of large torches ready to light up to frighten them off.

We had some bear hunts also, in which I bagged two of them, also a lynx and a variety of smaller animals. So passed the winter, agreeably enough on the whole, though I felt the want of any intellectual society, and grew very tired of the continued cold, and the very long nights.

By the middle of April, the temperature had risen to upwards of 20° Fahr., and, as there was no more snow expected, I resolved to return to my work, accompanied by my assistant, who had spent the winter in his old office. By sending on relays of horses, we made the journey in one day, and found our tenants all well, and jolly as marmots after their winter's sleep. Our quarters, however, were so filthy and stinking that we had to spend two nights in the shed before we could get them sufficiently purified to return to. The dirt of the lower and middle classes in Siberia is perfectly disgusting, and even extends to circles where one might expect to find

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cleanliness. Certainly the severity of the climate may, to some extent, excuse it, as there are so many months in which cold water cannot be used at all, but I am fully pursuaded that out of the 14,000 inhabitants of Tomsk, there were scarcely 200 who ever washed themselves more than once a week or changed their linen. The use of the hot vapour bath, which is very general among all classes, does much to keep their bodies clean, but as regards their linen, their house and table furniture, they all show evident signs of the scanty use of water, while the stench and closeness of the rooms, never aired all winter, are often abominable, though apparently unperceived by the natives.

With my assistant alone I now worked at laying down and staking off the future roads, but in the middle of May, when the snow began to melt and the ground to thaw, we got a batch of thirty convict labourers, and set vigorously to work. Fascines were made in heaps, and the worst portions of the swamp filled with them, while six horses helped the men in carting earth unceasingly. Rye, cabbage and roots were planted in the new ploughed ground to provide the supplies for next winter, and the astonishingly vigorous vegetation of the summer seemed intended to make up by its rapidity for the great delays of the past. Rye, sown in the end of May, was ripe for cutting by the middle of August, yielding an abundant crop, while our vegetables and roots grew to a gigantic size. The neighbouring stream soon became covered with numberless wild fowl, so that I shot and salted some hundreds of geese and ducks, while we made large captures of fish. In this way all the food for our party was soon provided on the spot. The road-making progressed rapidly, as I stimulated my men to exertion by extra rations of spirits and tobacco. I had, nevertheless, to order many punishments for laziness, drunkenness and sometimes for downright disobedience of orders. Is was out of the question to do otherwise, as I had a lot of fellows among my workmen who could only be kept in order by the most strict discipline.

At this time the gold diggings, about two miles from my quarters, were taken in hand, and some hundreds of workmen, mostly free, and highly paid, employed upon them. The overseers who directed the workings were low, coarse, drunken fellows, who were very jealous of any foreigner, and whom I shunned as much as possible. The director was a well-educated, able man, but had his station, unfortunately, at another establishment fifteen miles distant. The great majority of subordinate officials, both in the employment of Government and of individual mine-owners, are, throughout Siberia, with few exceptions, rough, low, wholly uneducated men, with whom a respectable foreigner can have no companionship, and, unfortunately, an educated body of middle-class civilians does not exist. The summer went by very quietly in such active work, though I had very little social enjoyment during it. The heat from the middle of July to the middle of August was perfectly tropical,

and the clouds of flies and insects from the swamp, reminded one of mosquitos. The climate of Siberia is certainly very bad, for the long cold winters and the short hot summers run into one another, without any agreeable interval of fine spring and autumn weather, such as we have in Europe.

By strenuous exertion, and the employment of nearly double our original strength of labourers, I succeeded in getting the roads completed by the time the end of September, with its first frosts, arrived. The carts were enabled to drive up to the works, and the causeway through the swamp shortened by fifteen miles, the distance to Tomsk. I had not ventured to promise so speedy a result, and was the more gratified at being able to show it to my employer, on his visit to us, when he arrived on his way to the mines of Krasnojarsk, about 200 miles further east, in which he was a shareholder, and to which I accompanied him. Our route led at first over a dead level, with small miserable villages lying from twenty-five to thirty-five miles apart. The poor horses had to travel these long stages without either rest or food, and did them well. When we reached the Jenisei, a fine, clear, wide river, the country became very hilly and richly-wooded, affording fine scenery. The town of Krasnojarsk, although only half the size of Tomsk, is much more regularly and tastefully built, with such a number of fine public buildings as one would never have expected to find in the wilds of Siberia. There was one church in particular, erected at the expense of some rich mine-owners, which, from its magnitude and fine architecture, would have done credit to a German city. I found the style of living and society quite that of Tomsk, but the climate more severe, as the town lies higher and more exposed to wind. After a stay of some days, I went with a party to some mines, about twenty miles distant, to report as to the laying-out some roads there also, and it was decided that next spring I should go there and undertake them.

In the middle of October I returned to Tomsk, making a very disagreeable journey, as a great deal of snow had already fallen. The road was very bad, and I had a most unpleasant companion in one of the mining company's officials. I took up my old quarters, and the old style of life, but lived as quietly as I could, desiring to save some money. I spent a great deal of time at the house of an exiled Polish general, who saw a great deal of society, but in a much quieter and, in my opinion, more agreeable style than that of my wealthy mining friends. His eldest daughter was one of the most beautiful and amiable girls I ever saw, possessing in a high degree those dangerous attractions of style and manner for which her countrywomen are celebrated. I cannot deny that I was desperately inclined to fall in love with her, and as eligible husbands are scarce in Siberia, I might probably have succeeded in marrying her, but I was deterred from such a step by the reflection that it would certainly involve a settlement in the country, as the only one where I had, at that time, a certainty of

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means to support a family. With my standing in society, and interest with the Governor, I could probably have reckoned upon a professional appointment under the Crown, and a grant of as much land as I chose to apply for—settlers of a good stamp being warmly welcomed and favoured; but the thoughts of the dismal winters cooled my fancy greatly. Moreover it was another serious consideration that the beautiful Pole was a zealous Catholic, for although to me, personally, it made no difference to what confession my wife might adhere, as long as she was truly religious in principle, and carried out the Christian rule of "love thy neighbour as thyself," not only in theory but in practice. Yet I had seen enough, in my own circle of home acquaintance, to know that mixed marriages do not tend to domestic happiness. Should a wife be either an ultramontane Catholic or a fervent Protestant, and give ear to the pernicious influence of domineering priests, those wolves in sheeps' clothing, who have caused more disorders in the world than all its armies put together, in such cases there is an end to all enjoyment in marriage. Duly pondering over these views I resolved to resist all temptations to matrimony, and, as every man of honour should do in like cases, took care so to regulate my intercourse with the lady as to prevent her ever suspecting my feelings towards her.

In April, 1858, I went to the distant diggings, and spent the summer road-making; but having to share my quarters with two under-bred Russians, and to overcome many difficulties raised to annoy me, I had to occupy myself either with my work, or in hunting, for a relaxation, getting plenty of sport, in the shape of a few bears, many foxes, a lynx, and innumerable quantities of wildfowl of all kinds.

When the September frosts set in, we left the mines, but to finish some plans and designs I remained till the middle of December in Krasnojarsk. I then returned to Tomsk, in company with a Government courier, through fearful cold and heavy snow. I was so enveloped in layers of fur that I could scarcely stir, but nevertheless suffered severely. Through a little incautious exposure I got my left ear frozen, but by diligent snow frictions the circulation was restored in time to save it, but not without the leaving a permanent mark. It is a frightful task to drive in a sledge on a long journey, with the thermometer at Zero of Fahr., and difficulties have to be encountered of which people accustomed to a temperate climate can form no just conception. The drivers on our box were clad in triple sheepskins down to their toes, but, for all that, were generally so entirely benumbed on arriving at a station, that they had to be lifted down.

In Tomsk I found all my old friends flourishing, and my lovely Pole engaged to a young fellow countryman, settled near Jakutsk, so that a hard fate destined this girl, qualified to be the ornament of any European society, to spend her whole life in the

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depths of a Siberia wilderness. It was, indeed, a cruel destiny! In February, 1859, the news of impending war reached Tomsk, and threw me into a fever of anxiety and restlessness, as my private letters assured me that a general conflict in Europe was close at hand. All my old love for soldiering woke up as strong as ever, and I passed sleepless nights debating with myself what I ought to do, for, notwithstanding all the kindness I had experienced and the many friends I had acquired in Siberia, I wearied of a country with such a climate, and sighed for an active outdoor life all the year through. At last I made up my mind to return at once to Europe, and, when I had done so, felt as if a ton were taken off my heart. My employer was quite thunderstruck when I announced this new resolution, and, at first, tried earnestly to shake it, but soon, seeing it was all in vain, set to work, with his usual kindness, to aid me in every way he could. He handed over to me a sum of 8,000 francs, which had accumulated in his hands, and loaded me with all possible comforts for the long journey. Everybody did the same. Even when I had got into the sledge to depart, I was overtaken by a parting present from the Governor of half-a-dozen bottles of old Madeira, and as for furs, I had more than I knew what to do with. I had taken care to secure an excellent place for my old soldier servant in the house of a wealthy mine-owner, but the faithful fellow wept like a child when I bade him farewell for ever, and started to recross the Ural on the 2nd of March, 1859.

MILITARY LAW.

The Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the Mutiny and Marine Mutiny Acts, has lately been published, and if one or two of the suggestions it contains are acted upon by the War Office Authorities, the Army at large may benefit. At present army jurisprudence is governed by the Mutiny Act (which is passed every session for one year only), and the Articles of War, the latter being an outcome of the former, without which it would be inoperative, and this duality the committee think might with advantage be abolished.

From the time of Alfred the Great, who is credited with having first embodied the standing Militia of the realm, soldiers have in some way or other been governed by special laws; but it was not until the reign of Charles I. that military discipline was enforced by Articles of War at all resembling those by which the British Army is now governed. From the days of Edward III. to those of Charles I., military offences were punished by courts presided over by the High-Constable and Marshal of England, the first dealing with questions relating to honour, chivalry, and heraldry, and

the second with matters which more directly bore upon the discipline of the soldiers. As these, however, fell into disuse when the forces for whose government they had been issued were disbanded, the Articles of War promulgated by the Earl of Essex in 1642, when in command of the Parliamentary forces, may be described as the first of these documents that has descended to us in anything like a complete form. There appears to have been seventy-nine Articles of War, in the "Laws and Ordinances" established for the better conduct of the Army by the Earl of Essex, but in consequence of a missing page only seventy-five of those are known.

We may, however, observe that though the court of chivalry had been abolished, the Marshal, who was generally the second in command, continued to sit as chief judge in all military tribunals, and to his court was attached a regular staff of officials, consisting of provost-marshal, jailors, tipstaves, and executioners. Subsequently it became the custom to invest the commander of the forces in his commission with power to enact ordinances for the government of the army, as well as to dispense justice; and as both descriptions of courts are mentioned in Essex's Articles, it is evident they existed concurrently.

Two years after the publication of Essex's Ordinances, when the Scotch Army marched into England, fresh "Articles of War" were issued for its government, which differed greatly from Essex's Articles in many respects, a fact the more surprising when it is remembered that both codes were in force in the same kingdom at the same time. It is worthy of note, however, that in the Scottish military code many of its articles display more religious zeal than is to be found in those issued by Lord Essex. For instance, there is nothing in the latter that at all resembles the following, which we quote from the former:—

"Article 3. Whosoever shall wilfully or carelessly absent himselfe from morning and evening, or from preaching before and afternoon on the Lord's Day, or other extraordinarie times, appoynted for the worship of God, when the sign is given by the sound of trumpet or drum, he shall be censured or punished for his neglect or contempt, by penaltie, imprisonment, or other punishment, as his fault deserveth.

"Article 4. Common and ordinary swearing and cursing, open prophaning of the Lord's Day, wronging of his ministers and other acts of that kind, shall not only be punished with losse of pay and imprisonment, but the transgressors shall make their publike repentance in the midst of the *congregation;* and if they will not be reclaimed, they shall, with disgrace, be openly censured and discharged, as unworthy of the meanest place in the Army.

"Article 5. All Commanders and Officers shall be carefull, both

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by their authority and example, that all under their charge live in godlinesse, sobernesse, and righteousnesse."*

Within a few months of the promulgation of the Scottish Code, Parliament passed an Ordinance establishing a system of martial law throughout the kingdom. This appointed the Earl of Essex, and fifty-six other gentlemen named in the Ordinance, to be "Commissioners," any twelve of whom were authorised to hear and determine all causes belonging to "military cognizance," and by this system of judicature many persons were tried by court-martial and executed.

When military, as well as civil, matters fell into Cromwell's hands, he, in virtue of his office of General-in-Chief, "sent orders to several garrisons to hold courts-martials for the punishment of soldiers offending against the Articles of War;" and on one occasion Cromwell seized several officers with his own hands, called a court-martial on the field, which condemning them to death, one was shot forthwith at the head of his regiment.

On the restoration of Charles II., the Army was disbanded with the exception of 5,000 men, which the King maintained by his own authority, and out of his own revenue, for guards and garrisons; and the little force thus formed (says Macauley), "was the germ of that great and renowned Army which has in the present century marched triumphant into Madrid and Paris, into Canton and Candahar."

King James II. afterwards increased this force to 30,000 men, all paid out of his own Civil List; but as this was not the purpose for which Parliament voted a revenue to the Crown, it was eventually made one of the Articles of the famous Bill of Rights at the Revolution in 1688, that the raising or keeping a standing army in time of peace, unless it be with the consent of Parliament, is against law. Although this passed, it was yet felt that a standing army was as much of a necessity as the Parliament by whose will it existed; that the authority to call out the troops should remain with the sovereign, but the money to pay the soldiers should not be granted without permission of the people; or to quote the quaint language of Whitelocke, "though the King would have the power of the sword, the Parliament would have that of the purse, so that they must both agree to draw the sword, or else leave it in the scabbard, which is the best place for it."

This was the origin of the first Mutiny Act, passed in 1689, and it has (with two or three interruptions) been renewed yearly ever since. Although the Mutiny Act enables the Crown to try soldiers by courts-martial for certain specified offences, yet the common law of England knew nothing of military tribunals. Prior to the Revolution a soldier and his officer, during peace, were, in the eye of the law, simply citizens, for if the former struck the latter he incurred only the ordinary penalties of assault

* "Manual of Military Law," pp. 16, 17.

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and battery. For such offences as being asleep on his post, insubordination or desertion, the soldier incurred no penalties at all.*

As discipline could not be maintained without the means of punishing military crime with more promptness than the slow process of legal tribunals, the annual Mutiny Act gave power to bring offenders promptly to trial. It was not, however, until 1718 that the Mutiny Act contained a clause empowering court-martials to punish with death the crimes of mutiny and desertion. This clause, we may add, was carried by only a very small majority in both Houses of Parliament. It will thus be seen that military law emanates from and is controlled by the civil power, and, like the ecclesiastical law, is simply a distinct division of the civil law of the realm.

There is, however, a difference between military law and martial law, which is, that while the first only effects soldiers, the second extends to all the inhabitants of the country where it happens to be in force. When the celebrated Irish patriot Theobald Wolfe Tone was taken prisoner, he was sent to Dublin to be tried by court-martial for high treason, and the military tribunal brought him in guilty of that crime, sentencing him to be hung on the 12th of November, 1797. But by this time the Court of King's Bench was sitting, that is civil law was re-established, and the Chief Justice, Lord Kilwarden, being applied to by Tone's friends interfered and sent the sheriff to stay the execution. Unfortunately Mr. Tone had committed suicide during the previous night, but the supremacy of the civil over military authority had been demonstrated all the same. Sir James Mackintosh has thus expressed himself upon the same subject:—"While the laws are silenced by the noise of arms, the rulers of the armed force must punish as equitably as they can those crimes which threaten their own safety and that of society, but no longer, every moment beyond is an usurpation. As soon as the laws can act, every other mode of punishing supposed crime, is itself an enormous crime."

At the same time the Mutiny Act always contains an enactment that nothing in it shall be construed to exempt any officer or soldier from being proceeded against by the ordinary course of law, and consequently, by the same reasoning, nothing in military law should, in times of peace, prevent any officer or soldier when before a court-martial for any offence, from claiming any privilege which he would be entitled to claim if he was a prisoner being tried by a civil tribunal for a similar crime. For instance a private Marine of H.M.S. 'Bellerophon' having, in 1848 been convicted of an assault upon his superior officer, the court-martial instead of sentencing him to death, the penalty annexed by the Articles of War to that special crime, sentenced the man to imprisonment. When the proceedings of the court-martial were

* Macauley's "England," VI. p. 296, VII. p. 274.

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received at the Admiralty, the sentence was declared illegal, and the man was ordered to be released and to return to his duty. An erroneous sentence is in law no sentence at all. The man referred to was at the same time very fortunate, for the confirming authority would have been acting quite within its right if it had sent back the proceedings for the members of the court-martial to reconsider their sentence, when no doubt the penalty of death would then have been awarded.

This power is one, however, which the Committee whose proceedings we are about to discuss might, to the advantage of the Service at large, have recommended to be cancelled. The power has so frequently been abused by confirming officers, or in short the finding and sentence of courts-martial have often practically been made to fall in with the well known views held by the confirming authority. Sir Charles Napier and other eminent officers have pointed out in unmistakeable language their opinion upon this point, and when it is kept in mind that the members of the court hear the evidence given, and the manner in which the witnesses give their testimony, any one must from a common sense point of view arrive at the conclusion that the confirming officer, by reading the proceedings, cannot understand the case as well as those who have personally investigated the charge.

We now come to another and very important part of military discipline—namely, that affected by the 12th and 13th Articles of War. Of late years, an idea has prevailed in the Army that an officer or soldier can have no remedy against ill-treatment received from his superiors; and when we reflect a little on this matter, it appears to us that the idea is not without some foundation. In the Reports now before us the subject is referred to as follows:—

"The matter dealt with by the 12th and 13th Articles of War, under the head of 'Redress of Wrongs,' appears to your Committee to require amendment. The 13th Article of War, which applies to non-commissioned officers and soldiers, is restricted to matters affecting their pay and clothing. Your Committee are of opinion that the opportunity to make complaints for the redress of wrongs should be afforded in as full a manner to non-commissioned officers and soldiers as to officers, and that, whilst the act of preferring wilfully false charges should be constituted a specific offence, care should be taken that complaints should not be visited with punishment under the general clause against conduct, in breach of good order and military discipline. Though it is probably necessary that some provision answering to the 105th Article of War should be made, in order to meet unforeseen cases, your Committee are of opinion that special care should be taken, that so general a penal enactment should be guarded by accompanying it with a proviso that it should not be employed for the punishment of any offence for which there is a specific provision made in the statute."

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This reads very well, and were officers able even to appeal with a chance of success against wrongs inflicted by a superior, the same opportunity to make complaints being allowed to non-commissioned officers and soldiers, would doubtless be beneficial. But an officer *cannot*, by the 12th Article of War, obtain justice for any wrong done him by a superior. All he can do, should he fail in obtaining redress regimentally, is to forward his complaint to the Commander-in-Chief; and when it is remembered that in most cases the complaint has to go through the hands of the very person complained of, who is not only allowed to read the statement made by his subordinate, but to send subsequently an *ex parte* account of the transaction which the complainant does not see, or know the existence of, the impossibility of the Commander-in-Chief ever ascertaining the true state of affairs upon which the complaint is founded will be easily understood. And it should also have been remembered by the Committee that while the civil law generally has undergone great changes for the last century and a-half, military law has not practically undergone any improvement whatever in the same period.

When we compare the alleged advantages officers have in making complaints, to what is possessed by non-commissioned officers and soldiers, we feel puzzled when trying to discover the difference between them. By the 12th of Article of War the former are debarred the right which the others by the 13th Article undoubtedly possess, namely, of appealing from the decision of a court of inquiry to the judgment of a general court-martial, while on the other hand, the complaints of the latter are restricted to wrongs affecting their clothing or pay. A soldier may be unjustly punished, or a non-commissioned officer may suffer the great injury of being passed over in his turn for promotion, yet by the Articles of War he cannot complain. Were all courts-martial proceedings as open to daylight as the proceedings in our civil courts are, then the publicity would to a considerable extent prevent any miscarriage of justice. But when courts of inquiry and, we might say, courts-martial generally, are tribunals which the light of public opinion do not reach, then there exists the more reason for all persons subject to the Mutiny Act to have it in their power to appeal to a court-martial for any injustice they may think a superior has done them. This is all the more necessary when the fact is recognised that no appeal by a soldier can be made to a civil court of law from the decision of a court-martial.* Therefore when an officer is wronged by a superior, and denied a court-martial, it cannot be a matter for surprise that those high in office take advantage occasionally of a state of affairs which certainly should not be allowed to exist in the British Army of the present day.

That gallant men have had their brilliant services often over-

* "Manual of Military Law," p. 219.

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looked by those in authority, is a fact unfortunately but too well known. Hodson, the celebrated Native cavalry leader in India, had, it is said, his own promotion stopped because he had "complained of seeing easy-going majors of brigade, aides-de-camp, and staff officers, all getting brevets and being made C.B.'s for simply being in camp and doing duty mildly, and frequently as mere spectators." Yet it was of him Sir Thomas Seaton wrote, "Hodson's conduct and courage is the admiration of all; how he gets through the work and fatigue is marvellous. He has the soundest heart and clearest head of any man in the camp. But his great feat was that of taking with 100 men the King of Delhi, who had 5,000 or 6,000, and lodging him a prisoner in that city. When he delivered over his prize to the civil officer, Mr. Saunders, the latter was so astonished that he exclaimed, 'By jove, Hodson, they ought to make you commander-in-chief for this.'" Still, for all the courage and capability he displayed in his dazzling career, he received neither promotion nor emolument. A death vacancy in his own regiment could not well be withheld from one whose deeds were said to "more resemble a chapter from the life of Bayard or Armides de Gaul than the doings of a subaltern of the nineteenth century," so by seniority he became a captain. A monument erected in Lichfield Cathedral by his brother officers to his memory, tells of his gallantry in the field and of his wisdom in council; but the country which he had done so much for, let him go to his grave undecorated and unrewarded, because he had had the courage to speak out and give his opinion about the injustice which prevailed in high places.

Unfortunately, the examples of injustice by superiors are so numerous that they call to mind the observations of Junius when he wrote, "That if facts, such as these, make no impression, it is because they are too vulgar and notorious." Sir John Scott Lillie is another instance, for although he had taken part in a score of battles, and captured with his own hand a French eagle (now in Chelsea Hospital), when contesting at the battle of Salamanca with the enemy the occupation of the Aripiles hills—notwithstanding he was wounded at Morales, wounded again at the actions on the Nive, and left for dead on the battle-field of Toulouse for forty-eight hours, he was yet passed over again and again for promotion, on one pretence or another—the true reasons, Lord Beresford's hostility and the Iron Duke's dislike, being never mentioned. Because Beresford thought Sir John was a friend of Sir Robert Wilson's, he would not recommend the first-named for promotion; and because Lillie had the hardihood to propose Mr. Joseph Hume as a fit person to represent Middlesex in Parliament, the Duke refused him either advancement or employment in the Service. His Grace, however, gave the hero of Aripiles permission to retire from the army by the sale of his commission. Sir John Lillie's was a hard case—one of those which, intense as the

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injustice was, did not allow of him to appeal to his Sovereign of the wrongs he was obliged silently to suffer.

He had no redress, and many others before and since have been similarly situated. Those that imagine justice to be now within the reach of all serving in the British Army should reflect on the case of Colonel Dawkins, dismissed from the Service last year, after having served some thirty-three years in the army, twenty-one of which was on full-pay. This officer joined the Coldstream Guards in 1844, serving with his regiment in the Crimea, having been present at the battles of the Alma, Balaklava, and in the trenches before Sebastopol. In 1859, however, Colonel Dawkins thinking he had been harshly treated by his superior officer, complained of this, in a perfectly respectful letter to the commanding officer of the regiment, but received no redress. In such matters a slight wound is often more painful than a severe one, and when to this is added the feeling that however unjust or cruel the treatment of the superior has been, he cannot be called to account for his conduct, the sore rankles with increased intensity. And so it proved in this case. Colonel Dawkins was subjected to many slights. He was publicly rebuked for a trifling offence; he was told as publicly that he was quite unfit to command a battalion, and "should never command a battalion in barracks or out of them," while he (Lord G. Paulet) commanded the Guards Brigade. As these threats were followed by actions, Colonel Dawkins applied for a Court of Inquiry into his conduct. This tribunal was granted, and having come to the decision that Lord G. Paulet had not been justified in making use of such language, the Duke of Cambridge, through the Deputy Adjutant-General, on 30th August, 1864, instructed Colonel Dawkins "to resume his duties as Field Officer," and he returned to his duty. Being, however, still prevented by superior authority from assuming the position in the battalion to which his rank in the army entitled him, he forwarded, through the Military Secretary, a protest to the Duke of Cambridge against such treatment. The reply to this was, if he unreservedly withdrew all the imputations he had made against his superiors, or in other words, declare his previous accusations to be both false and malicious, he would be allowed to resume the command of the battalion at once.

A proceeding so inconsistent with honour and truth, he naturally declined to perform, but in the spirit of an officer and a gentleman he professed his readiness to forget all that had passed and let bygones be bygones, on the understanding he was to resume the command of his battalion unfettered. The answer to this was another Court of Inquiry, when, although no fresh evidence was forthcoming, from what had been adduced at the previous one, which resulted in his favour, and notwithstanding the evidence in Colonel Dawkins' favour was far stronger in substance and the number of his witnesses greater than on the

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previous occasion, the decision come to by the second court was quite opposed to that arrived at by the first. The second decision was that Colonel Dawkins' appointment to the command of a battalion of Guards would not be beneficial to the Service.

This decision of the second tribunal, and the Duke of Cambridge's concurrence with the same, was made known to Colonel Dawkins on the 26th of April, 1865. The Commander-in-Chief in his remarks admitted, however, that though there was nothing proved against Colonel Dawkins' honour as a gentleman, it was therefore not a case for a court-martial; but at the same time called upon this officer to leave the army, either voluntarily by the sale of his commission, or be placed upon half-pay against his will. As the first Court of Inquiry, held only a few months before the second one, had exonerated Colonel Dawkins from blame, it certainly appears unjust that the favourable decision should be completeiy ignored, while the adverse finding was carried out to the letter. It was evidently a close case, regarding it from the most favourable point of view, and when it affected not only the position, but the fortune of an old and gallant officer, it appears the height of injustice to deny him, that which if he had been the least in fault, would have been forced upon him—namely, a general court-martial. How Colonel Dawkins has since expended a fortune in the vain attempt to get justice done him, and how for making the vain attempts he has been dismissed the Service, has now become part and portion of the history of British Military law.

The reason, however, of our drawing attention to Colonel Dawkins' case, is the inconsistency which exists in our Military Law, and the eccentricity of the Committee in recommending that non-commissioned officers and soldiers should in the matter of "Redress of Wrongs," be placed upon the same footing as their superiors. By the 13th Article of War, a private soldier can appeal from the reverse decision of a Court of Inquiry to a General Court-Martial. By the 12th Article of War, an officer is denied this privelige. It certainly appears a great injustice to any officer whose commission in the Army and future prospects in life depend upon proving his innocence of any charge preferred against him at a tribunal where the evidence is *not* given upon oath, to be debarred appealing to a General Court-Martial where the accusers would have to swear to the truth of their depositions. Had Colonel Dawkens been a private soldier instead of a field-officer in the British Army, he could have appealed from the decision of the court of inquiry to a general court-martial, but being a lieutenant-colonel of nearly eleven years' standing, what he could have, as a private, demanded as a right, was denied him through his being a field-officer. If he had compromised himself in any way, either by act, word or deed, that could have been twisted into a military offence, he would doubtless have been brought to a general court-martial upon the charge of having committed a breach of one or

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other of the 192 Articles of War; when all the provocation he might previously have received, would not be of the slightest avail for proving his innocence. Perhaps no better proof of his innocence could be given, than that throughout the whole affair his accusers could neither make out his allegations to be false or bring against him a single charge of conduct unbecoming the character of an officer and a gentleman. This of itself speaks volumes.

The injury to the Service at large done by a single case of injustice, if made public, is incalculable, as the case of the one innocent person punished creates in the public mind a feeling of sympathy for the ninety-and-nine guilty persons for whom really no pity should be felt. But the evil does not stop here, because the one case referred gives ninety-and-nine justly punished individuals the opportunity to go and *pose* themselves as martyrs, each and all being enabled to declare that they were driven out of the Service by means as unfair as had been brought into play in the instance referred to. We therefore trust that when the renovated Military Act appears, a great alteration will be found to have been made in the wording of the 12th and 13th Articles of War.

The question as to whether officers on half-pay should be—when unemployed—subject to the Mutiny Act, was not gone into by the Committee, at least the members did not pronounce an opinion upon the subject. The avoidance of that question was, we think, a wise one, for although soldier pensioners are liable to its provisions, yet we should be sorry to see the power farther extended. A pension, in our opinion, is simply part and portion of the agreement made when an officer gets a commission, or when a soldier enlists, and they should not be liable to be taken away for an offence (which, although it might be a serious one, when the individual was employed on active service, would be really no crime at all, when he had left the Army, and retired upon a well-merited allowance from the State). For instance, it would be wrong for a soldior in uniform to pass an officer of his regiment in the street without paying the latter the customary respect of a salute, and for such neglect the man could be justly punished. But it would be quite another matter to punish a pensioner, by stopping his pension for say twelve months, if he passed his former commanding officer in the street without saluting. Yet practically this is done, for at the time we write, there is to be seen printed up in all the Pension Offices in the kingdom the case of a sergeant who has been sentenced to lose two years' pension of 2*s.* per diem, upon suspicion of having written to the public newspapers an "anonymous letter reflecting upon the conduct of his late commanding officer." Here is a poor man punished by a fine of seventy-three pounds sterling, upon suspicion, and as he is "a person subject to Military Law, according to the Mutiny Act and Articles of War," he dare not complain for fear that a worse evil might befall him, that is, he might lose his pension altogether.

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If half-pay officers were to be brought under the same regulations, as the Committee seemed half inclined to recommend, then officers would be liable to like punishment as has befallen the sergeant, if they wrote to the newspapers otherwise than in a laudatory spirit of the powers that be. While it might only be just to put soldier-pensioners upon the same footing as half-pay officers, it would, on the other hand, be very unjust to bring the latter upon the same regulations as the former. Above all things, do not let us change for the worse. Whatever alterations may be made in the Mutiny Act, let them be for the better.

Molière remarked of the faculty of medicine, that doctors "considered it preferable a thousand lives should be lost according to their prescribed rules, rather than that one should be saved by any other means," and from the tenacity with which the authorities of the War Office have held to the old Mutiny Act, the above quotation slightly altered would not inaptly describe the opinions of successive generations at the Horse Guards regarding Military Law. In point of fact, any changes made by the authorities in the Articles of War, have never been on the side of mercy, but the contrary. Any amelioration of punishments have invariably been caused by an outside pressure. It was not until Private White of the 7th Hussars died, after receiving 300 lashes, that flogging for every trifling offence was discountenanced in the British Army.

We fully recognise the fact that the foundation as well as the keystone of an army is discipline, a virtue we are proud to be able to add that has always been a prominent feature in the character of the English soldier. The British Army may have been famed for "swearing terribly," as, according to Uncle Toby, it did in Flanders; or its members may have acquired at times the even more discreditable name of hard drinkers, as, according to other authorities it did in the Peninsula and elsewhere, but in no time of its history has its renown been sullied in the slightest by the accusation of cowardice. Men, as well as officers, have at all times been ready to march against the enemy, and as ready to fight the foe, when they met with him. Our soldiers have been ill-fed, badly clad, and left without shelter during a campaign, but the greatest hardships have never interfered with their fighting qualities; for that they have been ready, aye, ready.

The chief faults of our Army Disciplinary Code are those we have referred to, which at the same time the committee have but imperfectly dealt with. In some things the law is meagre and insufficient; in others over-severity is the distinguishing trait, while a few offences are attempted to be dealt with in a lax or perfunctory manner. The Committee might have called upon private soldiers, non commissioned officers, and officers now serving, as well as upon pensioners and half-pay officers, for information of how the Mutiny Act worked, and invited any suggestions

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which the experiences of these witnesses might have produced. Instead of this the Committee, between the 17th of May and 26th of July of this year, were contented with hearing the opinions of the Duke of Cambridge, Sir Henry Thring, Mr. O'Dowd, Major-General Carey, Mr. Clode, and Colonel Roche. The Committee, therefore, have been presumably but the mouthpiece of the War Office, seeing that the only evidence sought for was that of the Commander-in-Chief, and of the gentlemen who compose the Judge-Advocate-General's department. Some years ago, after Lord Strathnairn's Committee had sat for a similar project, but for a much longer period, the Judge-Advocate General's staff was more than doubled, for the express purpose of remodelling the Mutiny Act and Articles of War, and when they had neglected their duty for so long a time, another committee is ordered to assemble and investigate the matter; the persons called upon to give evidence upon the matter being those who, by disregarding their duties, had been the chief cause for assembling another Parliamentary Committee.

The proceedings and recommendations of the Committee may be summarised as follows:—1. The duality existing between the Articles of War and the Mutiny Act should be abolished, and all the penal provisions of Military Law incorporated in one document, which, after receiving the Royal Assent, is to become permanent, subject of course to such alterations as from time to time may be expedient. 2. The principle of Parliamentary control over the army to be maintained by a short annual Bill, containing the gist of the Mutiny Act. 3. The principle of a varied scale of punishments for active service and time of peace is admitted; so that the new military penal code will not perhaps bristle so much with the word "death," as the present one. 4. Officers of the regular troops to be members, if necessary, of court-martials held upon volunteers. 5. The opportunity of making a complaint to be afforded to non-commissioned officers and to soldiers as freely as to officers.

Simplification, even in the wording, of Military Law will be hailed with delight by the Army at large, but that of itself will not make the amended Code at all like perfection. More power to punish will doubtless be given to commanding officers, but as that will be a blessing or a curse, according to the intellectual ability of the colonel of a corps, we hope that the present authority given to officers in command, will be very little increased.

It is certainly surprising that we, who, as a nation, are so fond of copying French and German systems of tactics and drill, have never thought of modelling our court-martial system upon that of the nations named. In continental, armies military prisoners are tried by their peers; in the British Service it is only officers who are thus favoured. For most of the crimes committed by non-commissioned officers and soldiers, men of the same grade

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would be the best judges of the guilt of the accused. The sentence might safely be left to the president, who would always be a commissioned-officer, never, when possible, under the rank of captain, while in more serious offences the tribunal could be presided over by a field-officer. At any rate, if the absurd procedure of the grim farce, a court-martial, can be in any way simplified and rendered more capable of distributing justice with something like impartiality, a great stride would have been made in the required direction. As the case now stands, the Select Committee cannot be highly congratulated on the conclusion of its labours, for we fear it has left military law in but a little better predicament than it found it. Perhaps when another ten years has gone by, a third Committee will assemble, and by its performance of the duty at last deserve well of its country.

THE ARMIES OF ASIA AND EUROPE.

This is the title of a work by Major-General Upton, United States Army, embodying his social experiences and military observations during an official tour through Japan, China, India, Persia, Italy, Russia, Austria, Germany, France, and England, whither he proceeded under special authority, as notified to him in the following characteristic letter of instructions from the Hon. Secretary of War:—

"War Department, Washington City,
"June 23rd, 1875.

"General,

"On or about June 30th next, you will be relieved from the Military Academy.

"Upon being so relieved, it is desired that you proceed to San Francisco, visiting, on the route to that city, Salt Lake City, the Mines of Nevada, and the Yosemite Valley; that on or about August 1st you sail from San Francisco for Japan and China.

"On reaching Canton, you will proceed, *viâ* Singapore, to Calcutta; thence up the valley of the Ganges to Peshawar, and thence to the Russian possessions at Tashkend, by the most practicable route. Should it, however, be found impracticable to proceed to the Russian possessions from Peshawar, you will select the most feasible route that will enable you to reach Europe. Having arrived in Europe, you are required to visit the camps of instruction and military schools of Italy, Germany, Austria, Russia, France, and England, and thence return to the United States.

"The professional object of this order is to enable you to examine and report upon the organization, tactics, discipline, and the manœuvres of the armies along the route mentioned, and, in Germany, the special examination of the schools for the instruction

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of officers in strategy, grand tactics, applied tactics, and the higher duties in the art of war, and the collection and compilation of such other information as might naturally be expected to be of utility to this Government.

"During your absence upon this duty, which shall not exceed eighteen months, you will report as nearly monthly as practicable your address to the Adjutant-General, and, on your return, will make a full detailed written report to the Secretary of War upon all the subjects mentioned in this communication."

There could be none more explicit directions than these, nor could there be a duty more congenial to his feelings and trained perceptions than the one for which General Upton was thus honourably selected. As Governor of West Point Academy for the usual period of five years previously, he had earned the reputation of a strict disciplinarian and a ripe scholar, while his work on "Tactics," issued as a manual to the Infantry of the Army, had rendered him universally famous. Two officers—one of Artillery, and one of Cavalry—were associated with him in his vast enterprise, and their recorded impressions are now produced in this volume for the benefit, not merely of the United States Government, but, in a liberal spirit which as professional Journalists we are bound to recognise with gratitude, for as cosmopolitan a circle of readers as the author reached in his devious wanderings.

In addition to the military notes taken with the precision and completeness that might be expected from an officer with such ample opportunities, General Upton favours his readers with the perusal of his private correspondence, and the freshness and piquancy of these letters add much to the value of his statistical information, although, even in this latter respect, he cannot be accused of dryness, however hard his facts, and, in reproducing them here, we must apologise in anticipation for any aridity that may be detected.

As representatives of the United States Army, the General and his brother officers were naturally received, wherever they went, with the utmost courtesy and consideration. Every facility was afforded them to prosecute their mission to a successful conclusion, and nothing was wanting to make the trip agreeable and profitable.

Starting from San Francisco on the 2nd August, they reached Japan on the 26th, after an unruffled passage of twenty-three days' duration, and steamed into the Bay of Yedo, under the shadow of Fusi Yama, a sacred mountain, 14,000 feet high. Here they were "dined and tiffined" to repletion, and enjoyed a lavish hospitality from all classes, visiting all the objects of interest, and particularly the superb burial places of the Tycoons.

Japan owes what efficiency its army possesses to the exertions of a few French officers who, in 1867, were sent by the late Emperor Napoleon, at the solicitation of the reigning Tycoon, as

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a military commission to organize and drill it. The Revolution of 1868 put a temporary end to these measures of improvement, but the Mikado who deposed the Tycoon soon recognized the advantage of a standing army properly disciplined and trained, and he accordingly issued a decree in 1871 to raise an Imperial army. The Emperor of the French was again appealed to, and he immediately despatched a dozen officers of all branches of service, and about as many non-commissioned officers, to re-organize and instruct the Japanese Army. French regulations and tactics were inculcated, and camps of instruction were established annually to illustrate service on a campaign. Target practice was also taught, but Japanese officers retained command in all positions. The organization of the Japan Army in 1875 stood as follows:—One general, three major-generals, twelve brigadier-generals; fourteen infantry regiments; cavalry, two battalions; artillery, nine battalions; engineers, fifteen companies; heavy coast artillery, nine companies. A regiment consists of three battalions, of four companies each, the number of men being, on a peace-footing, 640, and on a war-footing, 960. There are also the Imperial Guards, composed of all arms, viz., two regiments of infantry, one of cavalry, two battalions of artillery, and two companies of engineers. In all, the Army, on a peace-footing, numbers 34,768 men, and on a war-footing, 49,878 men; thus the proportion of soldiers to the population is only 1,000 to 1,000,000. Service is obligatory, and the ballot is in force in Japan; but, after three years with the colours, the effective soldier passes into the Reserve. The uniform is white duck for summer, and dark blue cloth for winter. In fact, the Japanese are imitative, both in their Army and Navy, of European uniform. Witness the officers of the Imperial gunboat 'Seiki,' now at Portsmouth, whose dress is exactly like our own, even to the distinguishing rings of rank. Sniders and Enfield rifles, with sword-bayonets, are used, with other modern arms; and, at a review of several battalions in presence of General Upton, parade movements were executed with commendable precision. In all this the strange transition from ancient prejudices and barbarous customs to modern ideas is as remarkable as it is effective, and no doubt equal, if not longer, strides have been taken along the paths of industry and commercial enterprise. General Upton's verdict upon this insular realm, after due inquiry, is:—"Already she has reaped the reward of her foresight. The foundations of her Government, which, in 1868, were built upon the sand, are settling down to the rock. Insurrections, before ripening into rebellion, have been promptly stamped out, while her success in Formosa and Corea give evidence that Japan, no longer contented with progress at home, is destined to play an important part in the history of the world."

On the 25th of September our author reach Shanghai. This is one of the Treaty ports of China, and as such crowded with the

shipping of all nations. The Bund, too, is a broad street, where our merchant princes have established themselves in Oriental splendour. But General Upton's visit being on purely military matters he pushed on to Pekin. He traversed the delta of the Hoang-ho and Yang-tse in a covered cart drawn by mules, and after a fatiguing journey entered the Tartar city, and was welcomed to the American Legation. Pekin is well laid out on a square plan, with broad avenues, but the houses are small and tawdry, with tarnished gilt filigree work on their fronts. The inhabitants are clad in silk or sheepskin, as the case may be, but "many of them are half-naked, and all are very dirty."

Prince Kung, the Regent, gave the General an audience, but he delegated the task of military discussion to the Generalissimo of the Forces, Li Hung Chang. "With him, therefore, as with Prince Kung, we enlarged upon the fine military organisation of Japan," says the author, "as the surest way to stimulate them to action.

This, surely, was a doubtful service to civilisation, if, as General Upton afterwards admits, China only wants organisation and reform "to carry her victorious standards into any seas in the world." As a matter of fact, however, there is little dread of such an eventuality, for the "corruption that stands at the receipt of customs and the doors of justice, that bars the approach to officers of state, and pervades all branches of civil administration, has penetrated the army, and makes it as often an instrument of oppression as the beneficient means of preserving the peace." Nor can this state of affairs be wondered at in a country which has for ages been subject to periodical convulsions of society; to bloody civil wars, and ambitious insurrections which have imperilled the very existence of Government itself from time to time. Besides, too, soldiering is at a discount in China, as recorded in the proverb, "as you would not use good iron to make a nail, so you would not use a good man to make a soldier," a proverb which, as General Upton well remarks, "hangs like a millstone about the necks of officers and soldiers." The sole qualifications for a commission are expertness in archery on foot and on horseback, sword practice, and ability to lift heavy weights. Brute strength, in fact, prevails over scientific acquirements or mental capacity, and, as a result, Chinese officers are the most ignorant of their class. The men are only in a slight degree more debased, with the additional vices which an unrestricted use of opium cannot fail to produce. "The use of opium," says our author, "which has already become formidable, bids fair, if not checked, to entirely destroy the efficiency of the Army." The strength of the Chinese Army depends upon provincial regulations, and cannot be accurately stated. Each province provides the naval and military forces required by Government, and the Governors-General are allowed to arrange as to numbers

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and equipment. Consequently the strength of the Imperial Army varies considerably. At one time it numbered 1,263,000 men; at another only 602,000 men: but at all events an army of something under 1,000,000 and over 500,000 can readily be mustered. The Ping Pu, or Board of War, has general management of both army and navy, although ordinarily all the members are civilians. Its duty consists in aiding the Sovereign to direct the military affairs of the metropolis and the provinces, and "to regulate the hinge of the State upon the reports received from the various departments regarding deprivation of, or appointment to, office; succession to, or creation of hereditary rank; postal or courier arrangements: examinations and selections of the deserving, and accuracy of returns."

The Army of Pekin in 1874 was distributed thus:—Four battalions of 875 officers and men each, armed with muzzle-loading rifles; one battallion, or cadet corps, composed of 500 young men armed with bows and arrows, spears, &c.: one battalion of 500 men armed with small match-locks, and two battalions of 500 men each, armed with large match-locks, known as gingals, one to every ten men; one corps of 1,200 men armed with swords and shields; and one battalion of 200 men armed with various Chinese weapons, who form the body-guard of Prince Chun. Then there were cavalry and artillery in proportion; the former about 1,600 strong, and the latter of four batteries.

In addition to the foregoing regular troops, the city contained a force called Bannermen, an hereditary soldiery who correspond in some respects with our Volunteers, and in others with our Militia. They are descendants of the Chinese troops who in 1845, joined the force of invading Mandrins, and their numbers are estimated at 60,000. Finally there were two corps for the special protection of the Emperor's person and palaces, and these numbered 16,000 men. These forces were quite irrespective of the metropolitan constabulary, the strength of which is no less than 20,000 men. Thus, the capital with its outer walls formed a vast intrenched camp, and afforded ample opportunity for General Upton to judge of the entire army and its equipment. As regards the latter, the incongruity of everything struck the military critic, and he cannot resist exclaiming against the absurd conservatism of the ruling powers, and the obstinacy with which they cling to antiquated and useless armaments, while at the same time recognising the value of the most recent inventions by the erection of factories for the manufacture of breech-loading rifles. For instance, the calibres of the Remington and Spencer rifles have been enlarged to one inch, and the barrels made six feet long, "to give them a formidable appearance." The Governor of Chek-Kiang, in making his report of 1874, expressed himself "well satisfied with the skill in musketry-firing, shield exercises, use of the spear and scaling-ladder; also with the exhibition of horse

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and foot archery, matchlock, and gingal practice." And yet this province is on the seaboard, and its capital is within 150 miles of Shanghai! Surely the fact that 20,000 French and English soldiers found it possible to march to Pekin and dictate terms of peace to a nation of 400,000,000 people, discloses a supineness and a disastrous torpidity of sentiment which may well tempt Russia, or even Japan, to repeat the enterprise. "History," concludes our author, "has yet to record whether she shall continue to be an independent nation, or, like India, become the vassal of a nobler people."

By a happy coincidence General Upton's arrival in India only preceded that of the Prince of Wales' by a few weeks, and he derived all the advantage possible from the military reviews that were held in the Prince's honour. Even a miniature campaign was extemporised at Delhi, and General Upton joined the fortunes of "the enemy." Two days were spent in the manœuvres, and these proved rich in examples of English pluck and heedless rashness. "An exploit which was regarded as particularly brilliant," was to mount a company of infantry on the caissons of the artillery and send them on to seize a canal-bridge. "In the same situation," observes the General, "we would have sent a company of cavalry, which, in the event of opposition, would have dismounted and fought on foot, and would have thought no more about it." On the second day the battle raged along the whole line. The cavalry advanced in mass to within 1,500 yards of the enemy's batteries, and were declared by an umpire to have lost fifty per cent. Then the infantry advanced on the last stronghold of the enemy, regardless of scouts and skirmishers, and were received by a double line of stinging volleys, which, according to the inexorable umpire, decimated their ranks. Nevertheless, the only prisoner made was one of the enemy, General Upton himself, who was received at dinner by the Prince of Wales, with the smiling remark, "caught you at last."

It is not too much to say that the account of the Indian Army given in this volume is one of the best and most succinct that has ever appeared. The minutest analysis is made of its composition, historical records, and interior economy, while the author's allusions to the Mutiny and the possible future invasion of India are worthy of close reflection. The officers of the Indian Army are, he considers, admirable for the work in hand; their education and training, the variety of their service, the good pay and lengthy furloughs they enjoy enabling them to retain health and strength during long and arduous periods of duty, their excellent tact and judgment in the management of Natives, and their subordination to the civil element in the administration of the Presidencies, are all conducive to successful empire, and explain the wonderful problem of governing mixed and even warlike races by a disciplined minority of aliens. "The military institutions of India," observes

General Upton, "present more features for our imitation than those of any army or country in Europe. From the Battle of Plassy, when the vision of conquest first dawned upon the East India Company, until the final subjugation of the empire, every war was prosecuted with mixed troops. The British regulars formed a nucleus around which the Native troops could rally, and furnished to them the standard of drill, discipline, and valour. The value and economy of Native troops were early discovered, and nowhere in history has the wisdom of a government been so signally rewarded as in the organization of the Native Army."

It is gratifying to hear an American speak in unmeasured praise of our continued occupation of that vast continent. "No stranger," he says, "free from national prejudices can visit China and India without rejoicing that England controls the destinies of 200,000,000 people; neither can he observe the great institutions which she has fonded for their moral and physical amelioration without hoping that, in the interest of humanity, she may continue her sway until she has made them worthy to become a free and enlightened nation."

But we must hasten onwards, and accompany General Upton to Persia, which he reached early in March, 1876, visiting *en route* the Imaum of Muscat. By the Shah he was received with marked complaisance, but with the usual absurd formalities required by that monarch, all which, however, disappeared in a private interview, at which his Majesty accepted a revolver from the General, and made eager inquiries for the address of the maker. He also asked General Upton to write to Colt's establishment in Hartford, to ascertain the price of Gatling guns—some of which have, in fact, since been delivered to his Government.

The Shah was very anxious to show off his troops to the best advantage in presence of his American visitor. The principal manœuvre at the review held in his honour consisted in advancing a line of skirmishers, supported by a line of battle in double rank, behind which, at intervals of 40 or 50 yards, were posted a number of companies in double rank. When the fire of the supposed enemy became too hot, the skirmishers fell back to the line and kneeled down; then the rear companies closed up, and the entire line of four ranks poured in a deadly volley, and won the day.

The troops then "marched past," nodding a salute to their Sovereign, and immediately broke off, and straggled back to the city in company with the sightseers. What a contrast must it have been to the Shah—if it occurred to his mind at all—when, two years later on, he saw defile before him the grand Army of Republican France! When, at Longchamps, on the 20th of last June, he viewed the serried ranks of horse and foot: the workmanlike bearing of the field artillery, and the brilliant Staff of the Army of Paris, as they paraded before their warrior Chief, Marshal MacMahon. Yet, we can vouch for it, the Shah exhibited no

surprise or curiosity, nor even interest, in the gorgeous display. On the contrary, he reined back his Arab charger from the saluting point, and kept his eyes fixed on the ground during the march past of the admirably-drilled students of St. Cyr. Or did he thus hang his head in shame and mortified reflection that his kingdom and his army are so far behind the age? Who shall tell?

Some there are who would exalt the Shah into a place beside the most enlightened sovereigns of the Earth—others would degrade him into a despicable despot. His intentions may be excellent, but in Horatian phrase "strength fails him willing." As a matter of fact, his army is a mere rabble, or at best a militia of the lowest type; each infantry man provides his own food, and each cavalry soldier his forage as well. The soldier who is too poor to escape the ballot, "buys his time" from his mercenary officers, or in other words, bribes them to allow him to remain at home when he is supposed to be in the ranks at some frontier outpost. Company officers are wholly ignorant of their calling, and most of them can neither read nor write, while general officers have to purchase their promotion from the Minister of War by forfeiture of one or two years' pay. There is no general staff in the Persian Army, no commissariat, no transport department; all is left to chance and pillage, and as a sad but necessary consequence, discipline is unknown and the country lies at the mercy of a few well-led battalions of European troops. It is a dark and miserable future to contemplate, but it may not be so black as it is painted. At the conclusion of the review alluded to, General Upton and his brother officers pursued their way westward through Fabriz to Tiflis. Here they were presented to the Grand Duke Michael, but they saw little or nothing of the Army of the Caucasus, and on the 23rd of April they reached Sebastopol, whence they proceeded to Italy. The effective strength of the Italian Army is set down at a total of 410,850 officers and men. There is also a Militia numbering 277,265 men, and a Reserve of 181,195, in all 869,316 men. Like the other Continental powers, Italy favours the ballot, and service is obligatory, but every means is taken to mitigate the hardships of individual cases. Thus, a boy who can read or write can present himself at the age of seventeen, serve in the Army till twenty, then go on leave for five years, afterwards, serve four years in the Militia, and seven in the Reserve, thus completing his military service at the age of thirty-six years. Promotion is by selection above the rank of major, and inefficient officers are got rid of by offers of a generous retiring pension in proportion to their length of service.

In 1870 the Russian Army adopted the principle of obligatory service, and the consequence has been what we have witnessed in the late terrible contest. The period of military service is six years in the Active Army and nine in the Reserve. In Austria it is fixed at twelve years in all; three with the colours, seven in

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the Reserve, and two in the Landwehr: and in Germany service consists of three years with the colours, four in the Reserve, and five in the Landwehr; while France fixes the terms at five years with the colours, four years in the Reserve of the Regular Army, five years in the Militia, and six years in the Militia Reserve, making a total of twenty years. Thus it will be seen that the details of recruiting Continental armies are much the same. With the critical eye of an adjutant, General Upton comments closely on the infantry tactics of these nations, as well as of England, and he points out the features of the new system which he would recommend to his Government, namely, the sub-division of battalions and companies into constituent parts, commanded by responsible officers or non-commissioned officers; but he chiefly endorses the success of company columns when led by good captains, and he tries to impress his Government with the duty of providing in time of war at least one trained officer to command every company, and two field officers for each battalion.

We have neither time nor space to examine General Upton's "Conclusions." These are indeed more peculiarly the property of the United States Secretary of War, who has no doubt accepted them long since as foregone ones, inasmuch as the author's motives were pure in their formation and just on the premises. In his proposals for army reform, General Upton bases his plans upon the experience gathered from the study of the shortcomings of the most elaborate organizations, and he presents it "as the best system to meet the demands of judicious economy in peace, and to avert unnecessary extravagance, disaster and bloodshed, in time of war." What this scheme is, we will leave our readers to discover for themselves, suffice it to say that it is worthy of the accomplished tactician who proposes it, and of the free people for whom it is intended.

NOTES ON HASTY ENTRENCHMENTS.*

Under the name of "Hasty Entrenchments," are, of course, to be conducted those executed on emergency, by utilising or improving natural obstacles or cover, or creating the same artificially, in the most expeditious manner, and with the aid of any resources at immediate command. Cases may often occur where it is decided to accept battle, or await an almost certain attack, in some serious position.

In all such cases, works of the kind in question have to be executed on the eve or in the course of an engagement, and the time at disposal for their execution will vary from a few minutes to several hours, rarely exceeding twenty-four, their chief characte-

* "Journal des Sciences Militaires," May, 1878.

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ristics being that their value is transient, and ceases when the immediate object of their construction has been attained. Hence the appellation *flying* or *improvised* entrenchments.

The war of 1870-71 showed the important part these works were calculated to play in future campaigns. Since then, the the Carlist insurrection of 1873-75 afforded proofs of their defensive value, and of the difficulty often experienced in carrying positions thus retrenched. More recently still, the late war between Russia and Turkey has demonstrated that an army knowing how to make judicious use of these works may change the whole face of a campaign, so long as they are made subservient to suitable ends.

No one, either in France or elsewhere, now disputes the importance, nay the gravity, of the question here involved. The *Bulletin de la Réunion des Officiers* has repeatedly insisted on it. The *Revue Militaire de l'Etranger*, too, amongst others, has published an excellent study on fortifications on the field of battle, based on data furnished by the latest and most authentic foreign sources. But, in almost every instance, the subject has been considered from a *tactical* rather than a *technical* standpoint, and the question of the most suitable profile, which happily might furnish a solution to the rather difficult problem of the proper use of such entrenchments, has been ignored altogether.

However this may be, it cannot be denied that the picks and shovels have played an active and important part in the wars of the last ten years, thereby necessitating a certain amount of instruction in field-works for infantry troops. In Russia, Germany, Austria, and elsewhere, parties of officers and non-commissioned officers of the infantry are annually attached to the engineers' corps for instruction in field-works, so as to enable them afterwards to act as instructors to their own regiments. Besides this, in most foreign armies not only the pioneers, with which every infantry regiment, and in some cases each cavalry corps, is provided, but the whole of the troops, have been practised annually in throwing-up simple entrenchments; and, as a rule, fully one-half of the infantry now carry a portable entrenching tool of some kind.

In France, too, a certain proportion of portable entrenching tools has been issued to every infantry regiment; but, hitherto, so far as we know, no instructions have been promulgated respecting their use on the works to be executed with them, so that this most essential point is left entirely to the discretion of regimental commanding-officers.

In 1876, a School of Field-Engineering was instituted at Versailles, for the training of instructors of field-works for infantry regiments. But, in our opinion, this judicious move needs to be supplemented by the publication of proper practical instructions on the subject.

We should also prefer to see, as in foreign armies, subalterns and non-commissioned officers sent up for training instead of

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captains. The course of instruction, too, appears much too diffuse and comprehensive, not for infantry captains, who may be selected to attend such a course, but for instructors who are expected to teach all themselves have learned. On this point some clear, well-defined regulations are very much needed.

And we cannot too strongly advise that these regulations should de made as simple as possible. It is useless to deny that both officers and men of the tactical arms evince a decided dislike to trench work. With the men, this arises from their being unused to it, or having only had experience of it on engineer working-parties, employed in the execution of some heavy and perhaps difficult or dangerous task. The officers regard it as outside their own speciality, as an attribute of the engineers, while the instruction they receive in it is too arbitrary and not sufficiently practical, rendering the subject more repulsive still. A re-action should be got up against this feeling, for the importance of the work being incontestible, there can be no doubt that officers and men could be habituated to see it in a wholly different light. If this is to be accomplished we must guard against making the subject too abstruse. It should be divested of everything likely to suggest difficulties; it should be reduced to its simplest expression, and presented in as easy and as attractive a shape as possible.

The *Bulletin de la Réunion des Officiers*, 3rd of April, 1878, appears to us to have exactly defined the conditions of the problem in the subjoined passage:—

"It is now indispensable that the men should be rendered as familiar with entrenching tools as with their rifles, and that the ordinary course of infantry-instruction should include practise in throwing up entrenchments, in which too much stress ought not to be laid on regularity or varieties of trace, so as not to complicate the work or render it more irksome. The only works which infantry are likely to require, even under exceptional circumstances, are shelter-trenches, rifle-pits, and perhaps improvised entrenchment or flying-batteries. Officers and non-commissioned officers should be familiar with the methods of tracing such works and placing the workmen, and also with the preparation of the simpler kinds of defensive accessories, as making wire-entanglements, blocking the approaches to a village, making abattis, barricades, &c."

On the field of battle there is, of course, no time for preliminary preparations, or for niceties of trace and profile; the work must be done at once, and done with such tools (picks and spades) as infantry soldiers know, or can easily be taught how to use, so as to obtain the greatest amount of cover in the shortest possible time. Thus, as we have said before, the practical solution of the problem really is in the choice of the most appropriate profile, a point on which writers have not hitherto been able to agree. During the last few years, the subject has engaged a good deal of attention everywhere, and numerous experiments have been made, which

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deserve attention, as the question is one affecting troops of all arms.

This appears to be the view taken in Austria, where particular attention has been given to the subject of hasty entrenchments. It may be well, therefore, to make a brief analysis of two papers on the subject, by Captain Emerick Giffengen, of the Austrian Engineers (published in *Mittheilungen über Gegenstande des Art. und Genie-Wesens*, 1876), in which he reviews the opinions of all the best authorities on the subject, and also the results of the experiments made by two regiments of Austrian Engineers, at Krems and Olmultz, in 1870 and 1877, concluding by giving the shapes approved by the Tactical and Administrative Committee of the War Department, which have since become "regulation" in the Austro-Hungarian Service.

The writer begins with a survey of the progressive development of the art of field-fortification. Known from the remotest antiquity, its object has always been to contribute to certain tactical results. Before the invention of gunpowder and the introduction of firearms, works thus thrown up served as an *obstacle* between the defenders and their assailants, and, as the latter had to possess themselves of the obstacles before they could come to close quarters, it was an object to render this as formidable as possible.

After the general adoption of firearms this was no longer the case. Owing to the superior range of these weapons, obstacles could no longer be constructed with the same facility as in the days when they merely served as interposing barriers between the opponents; they had to be disposed so as to afford shelter against missiles thrown from a distance, and also to enable the fire of the defenders to be delivered to the best advantage.

To weapons of longer range was therefore relegated, at least in part, the duty of keeping the opponents asunder, whilst the works themselves diminished in value as *obstacles* proportionately as their value as *covers* increased in importance. Progressive improvements in small-arms thus gave a steadily increasing value to the *parapet*, the *covering mass*.

The tactical effects of improved firearms gave greater importance to the details of *ground*, and led to the more frequent employment of *field-fortification*, this essential condition of its use being that the works should be as single as possible in trace and profile, being intended merely as *cover*. It was also requisite to determine beforehand the amount of labour involved, so as to be certain of completing the work within the time available, and also to suit the trace to the space to be occupied.

So long as these works could not be executed during an engagement, it was usual to prepare them beforehand, employing it only in defensive arrangements undertaken with a certain amount of deliberation in aid of some strategetic object.

But when the increasing efficiency of modern fire had gradually

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abolished the employment of troops in exposed masses, it became necessary, in default of natural, to create artificial rallying-points along the shallow, elastic fighting-lines, and thus it was that fortification made its appearance on the field of battle itself for the reinforcement of positions previous to an engagement. In all such cases, the work will vary with the time and resources at command, from the simplest to the most complicated shapes, according to the exigencies of the moment. But to the breech-loading rifle, with its increased range and tenfold rapidity of fire, is due the greatest advance in the use of hasty entrenchments.

Now-a-days improvised fortification, having for its object the improvement of the *ground*, has become indispensable; even reduced to its executive minimum it is a *tactical necessity*. Some writers even propose to dispense with effective cover altogether in certain cases, and to use a simple mask. Unquestionably *any* arrangement tending to reduce the effect of the enemy's fire deserves consideration. A mask, although it will not turn a bullet, may do good service by preventing the adversary seeing his mark, and so taking proper aim. If time and means permit, cover of this description can subsequently be completed to fulfill other conditions. Sometimes it may be necessary to construct parapets proof against field-artillery, but this can only be done when there is plenty of time and labour at command. For all which reasons it has been found necessary to recognize a minimum standard of the work to be executed in different cases, satisfying the following conditions:—

1. The work must afford a good screen to the defenders.
2. It must favour the fire of the defence.
3. It must be capable of execution within a suitable time.

The starting-point of the investigation was, of course, the types already in existence, which, since their first adoption in 1868, had given rise to discussions on various points of detail, some of them important, some of them quite secondary, but which had not been satisfactorily settled. These points related to the technical shapes of the works in question, and the conditions essential to their tactical value.

To put them to practical test, improvised entrenchments, capable of receiving a company (Austrian) and a half of infantry and four field-pieces, were constructed at Olmutz and Krems, and subjected to a series of musketry experiments with a view to the elucidation of the following points:—

1. What difference does the height of the parapet make in the fire of the attack and of the defence? Here the conclusion was that for purposes of defence low parapets are best. Shelter for riflemen, allowing for a *grazing* fire gave the best results in firing. A mean of 20 trials showed the advantage to be with the defenders.

2. What advantages do defenders stationed behind the superior crest receive from loopholes or *bonnettes*? The practice of laying

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fascines along the crest, to cover the heads of the men firing beneath them are found not to be desirable. The fascines afford a well-defined mark to the enemy's sharpshooters, and are not thick enough themselves to turn a bullet. Earthen *bonnettes* are only traversed by one-fourth of the total number of direct hits. High *bonnettes* 12 inches in height, reduced the direct hits among the defenders to one-sixth. The use of *bonnettes*, therefore, appears indispensible to a firing-line. The use of fascines and *bonnettes* alike was found inconvenient in firing with two ranks, as the men of the rear rank have either to wait their turn of firing with those of the front rank, or have to lay their rifles over the top, which interferes with the aim at close ranges, and entails greater exposure.

3. Is any particular arrangement of the interior slope to be pre-ferred? The same results were obtained with an interior slope of 4 : 3 as with one of 4 : 1. With the former, however, it was found necessary for the rear rank to fire standing with their rifles laid over the *bonnette*, which requires tall men who are proportionately exposed.

4. Is it best to put one or two ranks on the banquette? Apportioning the direct hits, it was found that the rear rank had half as many again, and where there was a 12 inch *bonnette, nine times* as many hits as the front rank. Assuming that a *bonnette* is used, a second rank at best doubles the fire as compared with a single rank, while the losses are increased ten-fold, so that the second rank would be destroyed before its fire could tell in favour of the defence.

From all of which it appears, that the extra cover afforded by a *bonnette* is an absolute security, but the advantage so afforded is incompatible with the fire of two ranks.

To allot two ranks to the defence of an improvised entrenchment, on the supposition that the rear rank may reinforce the front at critical moments is not a judicious distribution of strength, as it is often difficult to seize the right moment for action, and crowding interferes with the defence.

As a rule, it may be laid down that the banquette should be occupied by a single rank of defenders, the second rank, where two are employed, not deriving sufficient advantage from artificial cover of this sort to justify its use.

5. Is it necessary in repelling an assault that the defenders should mount on the superior slope, as formerly was the rule? This is a mere question of accuracy of fire. It has been proved to be no longer practicable for the defenders under any circumstances to show themselves above the crest. Capt. Maurice Brunner, of the Austrian Engineers, has described this point in detail, and a *resumé* of his observations will be found in the *Bulletin de la Réunion des Officiers*, 28th Oct. and 4th Nov., 1876.

6. Are grenades thrown by hand of any use to the defence? Originally hand-grenades were intended to supply the want of a

flanking fire in the ditches, and to obviate the necessity of mounting on the superior slope during an assault. The rapidity with which works of the kind in question are thrown up, does not admit of making provision for a flanking-fire in the trace, but although the rapidity of fire now possible does not actually dispense with the the necessity of a flanking-fire, protection against escalade should be sought in the accuracy of fire on the part of the defence rather than in other ways; still the defensive value of the ditch as an obstacle must not be overlooked, if the dimensions of the parapet be modified. Experience shows that with the precision and rapidity of fire now possible with breech-loading rifles, hand-grenades may be relegated to the category of defensive appliances, which have passed out of date or are of questionable efficiency.

7. Lastly came the question of whether it is better to place the field-guns destined for the defence of a field work within the work or outside? All the best authorities have expressed themselves to the effect that the placing of the guns outside is *allowable*. The arrangement possesses the following advantages:—

1. The points of attack receive a greater development, obliging the enemy to divide his own artillery.

2. Consequently, the guns can keep up their fire for a longer time.

3. The garrison is spared and left intact.

4. The fire of the guns posted outside is more efficient.

5. The guns belonging to the adjoining works can give more effective support to the work attacked.

6. The guns are safer, as they can be kept out of range of the enemy's rifles.

7. It is easier to avoid the loss of the guns.

8. The greater liberty of movement afforded allows the guns to be used in the general course of the action, both before and after the attack in the entrenchments.

9. Such cover as is necessary for the artillery (epaulements and batteries) requires less time for its execution.

The same conclusions are arrived at by an opposite course of reasoning, if we consider the case of guns shut up within a field-work. In short, the opportunities for using them are so few, that it would be difficult to turn them to account. Besides, at the critical moment, the moment of the assault, it is almost impossible to run the guns up on the barbettes in the thick of the infantry combat.

As to the moral effect on the infantry garrison produced by the presence of the guns within the work, there is risk of its proving the reverse of advantageous, as it is necessary to remove the guns from the platforms whenever the enemy's artillery comes into action.

In closed works it is always well to separate the infantry entrenchments from those intended for the artillery.

(*To be continued.*)

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JOURNAL DURING THE CHINESE EXPEDITION IN 1841 AND 1842. (*Concluded.*)

For eight days after this we were slowly making our way up the river to Nankin. On our arrival there we soon discovered an excellent landing place on the right bank of the river, where there was a small village and some government buildings, such as barracks, a large temple, and a custom house. A regiment of Native Infantry were at once landed and occupied this place, and on the second day our light guns and horses were disembarked. I accompanied our colonel and the quartermaster-general in a reconaissance into the interior. We found an excellent road leading from the landing-place to the City of Nankin, which was five miles from the bank of the river. About a mile and a half from the walls was a large village, in which it was decided to establish the headquarters of the artillery; this was at once taken possession of, and the work commenced of landing the siege train and heavy guns, and establishing a large artillery park. I had been very hard at work for four days after our landing, and constantly exposed to the burning sun, with alternate torrents of rain, and on coming in from work one evening, was completely floored. I was at this time occupying a farm-house, with my men and horses, and we had a guard of some four companies of Native infantry with us. My bed, which consisted of a door resting on two logs of wood, was in one corner of the large room of the farm-house, this room being occupied in common by all the officers of the Native infantry and myself, and used as a dormitory, mess-room, and sitting-room—in fact, it was the only room we had. I never shall forget the first night of my illness. I was lying on my door, with a regimental cloak as my only bedding, and a valise, taken from my saddle, as a pillow. With raging fever and a splitting headache, and the mess-dinner going on in the same room, and after dinner everyone commencing to smoke, and what with the noise, the smell of the dinner and smoke, I thought I should have gone mad. For three days I lay helpless in this state, and then our old doctor came, and carried me off on a stretcher, and took me to comfortable quarters, and under his care I soon got well again. As soon as I was pretty well, and able to mount my horse, rumours of peace began to get about. Our preparations for the siege, however, still continued, and the country round thoroughly reconnoitred, as well as the environs of the city.

The city of Nankin is surrounded by a high bastioned wall of masonry, the total circumference of the walls being seventeen miles. The space inside the walls is not entirely occupied by houses. There are large tracts of what appeared to be pleasure-grounds and gardens visible inside the walls. The wall of the city could easily be breached with our guns, and the defences of the town are insignificant; in

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fact, there is nothing to stop us when once we attack the place. There is some very high ground between the river and the city walls, covered with forest, and it is much healthier at our camp, near the walls, than at the shipping. We can see the thick yellow fog hanging over the ships and the river when we are enjoying a clear, fresh air.

August 21st.—An envoy has arrived from Pekin, with full powers from the Emperor to arrange the conditions of peace, and he has settled everything with our plenipotentiary, Sir H. Pottinger, and we are now only waiting for the Emperor's final ratification of the terms. All our preparations have been made, and, as peace is now nearly certain, we have some leisure, and I have had some very pleasant excursions into the country. Game of all kinds is abundant, snipe in particular. A tolerable shot can bag twenty or thirty brace in the morning. Pheasants and a small kind of deer, like Indian fungee sheep, are also plentiful, and also quail; but we have not seen a partridge of any kind.

Amongst our other excursions was one to the famous Porcelain Pagoda. This beautiful building lies on the opposite side of the city from where our camp has been formed. We can distinctly see it, and many of us have longed for an opportunity of visiting it. To my no small delight I heard one day from my friend Captain Balfour that he had obtained permission to visit the Pagoda, and that a Chinese mandarin with an escort were to be sent with his party, and he kindly gave me an invitation to go with him. We started one fine morning at daylight. There were about ten of us, officers from the artillery and navy, with two European interpreters. We were all mounted, and had to ride round outside the walls of the city about fourteen miles to get to the Pagoda, which is situated in a large suburb outside the walls. The first ten miles of our journey we were in the open country, passing through small villages now and then, but as we approached within three miles of the Pagoda we entered a densely-populated suburb or town, and our road was through one long street of houses. This street was thronged with spectators to see us pass, the people standing in rows four or five feet deep on each side of the street. Our Chinese escort and the police of the town kept the most admirable order amongst the crowd of spectators. There was not the slightest approach to rudeness of any kind, no pushing or struggling, and the most perfect silence enforced. I should think the whole population of the city must have turned out to see us. For miles the densely-packed crowd continued to line the street. At last we arrived at the Pagoda, and were met by the priests, who took us into the large room on the ground-floor. Here we had breakfast, which we had brought with us, in some well stored hampers, and then proceeded to explore the Pagoda. I fear I can do very poor justice to the beauty of this extraordinary building in describing it to you. It is unlike anything else in the world. It is an octagonal tower, some 120 feet high, and consists of five stories; the whole

building is constructed of beautiful porcelain bricks, about fourteen inches square, and the interior walls as well as the whole exterior of the building are a mass of grotesque porcelain figures of all sizes, shapes, and descriptions. Our party were the first Europeans or foreigners who had ever been admitted into this famous tower. We spent the day rambling about the Pagoda, and at three o'clock we had luncheon. By this time the priests and ourselves had become great friends. They were a very good-natured set of fellows, showed us everything, and laughed and chuckled as they trotted about with us. Somebody during luncheon asked the abbot or head priest if he would have a glass of wine, and he drank it off with the greatest gusto. The other priests were then asked to take wine, and we soon found out that they had a keen relish for it. In fact nothing came amiss to them in the way of drink. Beer, wine, brandy, whatever was offered was drunk, and they asked for more. I am sorry to say when we went away the abbot was very drunk, and the whole lot of priests more or less tipsy. I was very anxious to get one of the porcelain bricks which the tower is built of, but did not know how to manage it; but at last an opportunity occurred. One of the priests took a great fancy to an empty long-neck red-glass hock-bottle, and asked me for it, and I offered it to him if he would try and get me a brick. He disappeared for some minutes, and then returned with a brick, which he gave me in return for the empty bottle, and I packed it away in one of the luncheon hampers. We started on our homeward journey about four o'clock, and returned by the same route we came. The crowd was, I think, even greater than in the morning, and the same perfect order and discipline maintained.

On the 18th September a General Order was issued informing the Force that the Treaty of Peace had been duly agreed upon and signed, and then we commenced reshipping guns and stores. One day I had gone down to the shipping with a large quantity of stores from the Park, and was putting them on board a ship called the 'Defiance.' She was full of artillery stores of all kinds, and had a large store of rockets on board. We had been at work all the morning, and at two o'clock the other two officers, who were with me, and myself, went into the cuddy to have luncheon, and the men went to dinner on board the ship. Whilst we were at dinner a heavy thunderstorm came on. Presently there was a fearful clap of thunder and then a crash. We all jumped up and rushed on deck. The ship had been struck by lightning and the main-mast shivered to pieces.

A thin smoke was issuing from the hold! Imagine our feelings! The ship was full of gunpowder, rockets, shells, and other combustibles, one spark amongst these and ship and all on board would be blown up into the skies. Captain Hall, the senior officer immediately ordered the trumpeter to sound the assembly, and the men fell in on deck. Then came a moment or two of agonising

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suspense! cautiously a party went down into the hold, the smoke had disappeared. The packing cases round the foot of the main-mast (which was shivered to pieces) were examined, there were marks of the lightning on two. One a case containing carbines which we opened and found the barrel of one of the carbines cut through by the electric fluid. The second case contained 32-pounder rockets, the case of one of these rockets was scorched by the lightning. What an escape! If that rocket had exploded where should we have been? For some time we scarcely dare move, but by degrees we began to regain confidence. The men behaved admirably, there was no confusion, no panic, orders were given quietly and firmly, and obeyed implicitly. We searched the ship and found, God be praised, that the only damage done was the destruction of the main-mast. This was split down to the very bottom, and the danger was that the top-mast main-yard and all the spars above would come thundertng down on deck. The main-yard was lowered at once, and then top-mast, &c. We returned to camp that evening with thankful hearts at our wonderful escape.

About this time an order came out about looting, stating that as the Treaty of Peace was now signed the greatest vigilance must be observed to prevent plundering or looting. Some days after this order was published, a brother officer and myself were on duty at morning stables, the men were all hard at work cleaning their horses and we superintending. Presently the word was passed, "attention," the General is coming into the stables, and the General with several of his staff came in. There was a party of the Provost Marshal's men with them with three of our Native horse-keepers as prisoners.

The General was very angry, he said, he had been taking his usual morning walk, when he had come upon these three culprits in a Chinaman's house plundering, and had ordered the Provost Marshal to seize them. He said such conduct was unpardonable after the strict orders he had just issued on the subject. The General ordered all the Native followers to be assembled immediately and that the orders about plundering and looting must be explained to them, and he asked the other officer and myself if we knew sufficient of the language to do this. We said we did not, but that the Quatermaster, Mr. Woods, understood the language, so as to make himself understood by the horse-keepers and grass-cutters. Mr. Woods was then sent for, and the General asked him if he could speak the language, and he replied "Yes, he could speak to the horse-keepers or the likes of they." The General then made a long speech. Said our Queen Victoria was now at peace with the Emperor of China, and therefore the English and Chinese were now friends; how wrong therefore was it to plunder and loot, and so on. The General finished by ordering old Woods to parade the Native followers immediately and explain to them all he had said. Old Woods grunted out a "Very good Sir," and the General and

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Staff took their departure. Curious to hear how old Woods would interpret the General's long speech to the followers, the other officer and myself attended the parade which took place at once. Old Woods had all the Natives drawn up in line and the culprits placed in front of them and facing them. He then addressed them as follows :—"I say, you chaps, you see these here, Veera, Mootoo and Arcot (these were the names of the three plunderers), the General have a catched them looting, and there is 'two dozen' for each on 'em as soon as stables is over. Now that's all about it. Away you go!!" and so he dismissed his parade. This certainly was a short and concise interpretation of the General's long speech, and we had a hearty laugh over it. Old Woods, however, was perfectly satisfied that he had done his duty and obeyed the General's orders to the letter.

At last the order was issued for us to embark our horses and men and leave Nankin. We were the last to leave, all the other troops had gone on board their ships which had commenced the slow and tedious process of dropping down the river with the current. This is done by keeping the head of the ship up the stream with an anchor out just touching the bottom, and so the ship gradually drops down with the current at the rate of some three or four miles an hour.

When we started, the Captain of the 'Defiance,' the ship on which the troop of horse artillery were embarked, determined, instead of dropping down the river as the other ships were doing, to sail down with the current, by which means, instead of progressing at the rate of about three miles an hour, he would go at the rate of ten or twelve. The 'Defiance' captain was obliged to get leave to do this, and my ship the 'Gipsy' was ordered to follow him. We started at daylight and it certainly was nervous work. We were going at such a rate that if we struck on anything, we should very likely upset or else run on shore with such force that it would be almost impossible to get off again. We passed ship after ship in our headlong course; some of the crews stared at us in astonishment and others cheered us heartily for our pluck. About ten o'clock in the morning, just as we were at full swing, the captain of my ship was utterly floored by an attack of aguë and was obliged to go below, and about an hour after the first mate followed suit. The second officer was little better than a common seaman, and he got dreadfully nervous and wanted to come to an anchor, but I kept him up to the mark and pointed out that there could be no danger if he followed the 'Defiance' closely, as she was a larger ship than we were. We were a terribly fever-stricken lot on board; the crew were worse then my men, as they had been anchored in the river for the whole time that we were on the heights above Nankin. However, my men were nothing to boast of, and nearly a third of them at a time were down with ague and fever. We longed to get out of the river. All that day we continued our rapid course

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and I never left the deck for a minute. We anchored when it was dark, and started again at daylight next morning, and that evening were at the mouth of the river, thus we got over in two days the distance which it took the other transports a fortnight to do, and on the second morning after leaving Nankin we left the mouth of the river and were in the fresh open sea. How delightful was the fresh sea-breeze and the glorious blue sea after the yellow fog and muddy water of the Yangtee River, and how we enjoyed our breakfasts that morning. We had three days' delightful sail to the Island of Chusan where we were ordered to proceed and land our horses and men, and go into quarters until all the rest of the fleet arrived. The day after our arrival at Chusan we landed our horses and men and took up our quarters in a large farm-house which was alloted to us as a barrack. We found these most comfortable quarters, and sufficiently large to hold the whole of the horse artillery and my own party of men and horses. We soon put up a snug little mess, which very soon became a popular rendezvous for the officers of the Navy. We found Chusan greatly altered. When we left, it had been pretty well sacked and looted by the Army and Navy, and the town was nearly deserted by the Chinese. Now everything is in perfect order, comfortable barracks have been run up for the troops, and the town is crowded, all the shops open and an excellent market established. We are able now to ride all over the island without any fear of being molested, indeed the Chinese in the villages about the island always welcome us as we generally spend a few dollars in purchasing fowls and eggs, and sometimes a bullock or a goat or two. I had no idea when we were last here what a beautiful island this is. The scenery inland is really lovely, the hills are mostly covered with plantations of fir and oak trees which are very carefully kept by the Chinese Government, and the valleys are very highly cultivated and look more like a succession of well-kept gardens than fields. Game is most abundant, and we are out shooting nearly every day, and our mess is kept well supplied with snipe, woodcock, pheasants and now and then a small kind of deer like the Indian jungle sheep. We found the garrison here very healthy, they look as if they were fresh from England, particularly when compared with the troops who have just arrived from the front, that is from Nankin, who are all suffering more or less from fever or ague, and look very sickly and washed out. The climate at present is delightful, very much like that of a fine English autumn. We are to make some stay here, waiting further orders from India and England. The sailors are much more sickly than the soldiers, some of the transports would be quite unable to move if it were not for the assistance given by the troops on board in working the ships.

Shortly after arriving at Chusan I received an order to make over my little troop of Tartar horses to an officer who was to remain behind at Chusan. It was with much regret that I gave up the

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horses. I had received nothing for the command in the way of pay, but it had placed me in a very pleasant position, aud I believe has been the means of bringing me forward in many ways to the notice of the General Commanding the troops. We had a very comfortable mess' at Chusan, which soon became a regular lounge for all the naval officers when they came on shore, and from the number of guests we always had, our mess went by the name in the Force of the "White Horse." A most amusing circumstance arose from this. A new ship, a man-of-war, arrived from England, and two of the officers came on shore to see the place. On inquiring from some other naval officers what was to be seen and where they ought to go. They were told that they had better make for the White Horse as a starting point, and they would be put in the way of seeing all that was to be seen. The two officers naturally concluded that the White Horse was an inn or tavern. One morning we had nearly finished the mess breakfast, when these two officers walked in. None of us knew them, but room was made for them at the table. They sat down in a very independent manner, called for fresh mutton chops, abused the mess-waiter because the coffee was cold, told him to take it away and give them claret and water, and so on, until they had finished their breakfast. The mess-waiter, a very proper and well drrilled servant, looked at them with astonishment. He had never seen guests at the mess behave in such a manner before, however, we gave him a look of encouragement, and he supplied all their wants. At last they had finished and called for their bill, and you may imagine their feelings when we all burst into a roar of laughter, and the mess-waiter politely told them that "This was the officer's mess."

We chaffed them well, and, as they turned out to be two very good fellows, we soon got to be very good friends, and this was by no means the first and last visit they paid to the White Horse. About this time Admiral Sir William Parker, who used some times to come to our mess, and was very much liked by all the gunners, and indeed by everyone in the Force, gave a pic-nic party to visit an island called Putvy, about forty miles from Chusan. He sent an invitation to our mess for as many of us as could get leave to go, and two of us, Captain Hall and myself, went. There was a large party altogether, a good many officers from the Navy: Captains Keppel, of the 'Dido,' and Bouchier, of the 'Blonde,' and others, and also the Plenipo', Sir H. Pottinger, with several of his Staff. We embarked in a steamer, and were three days on board, during which time the admiral entertained us in grand style, and we had a very jolly, pleasant time of it.

I did not much care for the Island of Putvy. It is a sacred island, and covered with temples, built in terraces from the water's edge; they were very pretty, and well kept, with the usual neat little gardens and plantations about them, but they were like hundreds of others that we had seen before.

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Shortly after this trip to Putvy, a party of us got up an excursion to visit Ningpoo. We hired a Chinese vessel of about fifty tons burden, and five of us, with our servants, started. It took us a whole day and night to reach Ningpoo from Chusan, with a favourable wind and tide, and we came back in about the same time. We put up at Ningpoo, in a large temple, or joss-house, in the suburb, outside the walls of the city, and on the opposite side of the river. We spent three days at Ningpoo, wandering about the streets, and buying a lot of curiosities of different kinds to take home with us. I had expected to see a great change in the city, and certainly could scarcely recognize it again as the miserable, deserted place we had left a year ago. The shops were now all open, and very handsome shops they were, and the streets thronged with people, not shabily-dressed ragamuffins, such as we used to see before, but well-dressed, well-to-do citizens, and now and then we would come across some great swell, a Mandarin, in a sedan-chair, escorted by a lot of soldiers and policemen.

I tried to get into our old barracks, and to my old quarters, but found them occupied by a small Mandarin and his household and retainers. I scarcely could recognize the place at all. After spending three days at Ningpoo, we returned to our quarters at Chusan. During our stay at Ningpoo, we used to go daily to a Chinese eating-house to dinner. The cooking at this place was simply perfect. I can't well describe to you the different dishes; they were entirely unlike anything English. We had exquisite fish, cooked in all kinds of ways; red mullet, wrapped up in vine leaves; and fried sturgeon cooked in rich jelly; soles done up with a thick sort of tamarind sauce! One dish that was particularly good was a sort of salted and smoked duck, stuffed with a kind of mince meat and stewed. As for pastry and sweeties of all kinds and sorts, and preserved fruit, dried and in syrup, the varieties were endless. The only thing we never could relish or drink was the shamshoo, or Chinese wine. We tried all the best kinds, but could relish none. We used to drink our own wine and spirits, and the Chinese themselves preferred ours infinitely to their own. The Chinese bread is excellent, and vegetables are of many kinds, and well cooked. The sweet potato, which in India is scarcely eatable, in China is very delicious. In India it is tough and stringy; in China they send it to table a ball of flower.

After we returned to Chusan, the Force began gradually to break up. One day a man-of-war would start for England, round the Cape; then two or three transports, with a regiment for Calcutta or Madras, and so on. There was great leave-taking, farewell-dinners on board ship and on shore. The sailors and gunners were always great friends, and I parted with a good many naval friends with great regret. The Artillery transports were nearly the last to leave Chusan. We had a good deal to do in leaving stores behind, and packing the rest to take away with us. At last our turn came.

Just as we were leaving, I was ordered, to my no small disgust, on board of a ship with some 500 or 600 Native followers, principally doolie-bearers, which I was to take charge of. It was a disagreeable, troublesome charge. I had two companions on board: one was Captain Sherreff, Adjutant-General of Madras Troops, and an old Scotch doctor, a great character, who constantly kept us amused by his quaint Scotch dry wit and stories. Our passage down the China Sea to Hong Kong was uneventful. I had a great deal of trouble with the Native followers, which was what I fully expected. The issue of their rations was troublesome, the weather bitterly cold, and the poor wretches remained huddled together in heaps between decks, and it was with the greatest trouble we could rouse them up and make them keep their part of the ship clean. With so many on board, crammed together as they were, the place where they were would soon have become a pest-house, unless holey-stoned and cleaned every morning.

We sighted the island of Hong Kong about four o'clock in the afternoon, and it was quite dark by the time we came to an anchor. That night, whilst smoking a cigar on deck, I tried to make out the different points of the well-known harbour where we had been at anchor for so many months, but I could make nothing of it. Along the beach, which had before been quite open, without so much as a hut on it, there appeared now to be a long handsome street of houses, lit with lamps.

On getting up the next morning, I found that the ship with the head-quarters of the Artillery on board had arrived the day before us, and I went on board at once, and reported myself. I found, to my no small satisfaction, that I was to get rid of my doolie-bearers, and received an order to land them at once, and then to join the head-quarter ship. All that day I was busy, getting the natives on shore; how I did bless them as I saw the last of them land, and made over the accounts and papers to the officer on shore. I then transferred my traps to the head-quarter ship, and that day had once more the pleasure of dining with all my brother officers at our regimental dinner. The next day I went on shore, and explored the town of Hong Kong. What a change had taken place! it appeared almost like magic. When we left Hong Kong, nearly two years ago, there was not a house on the island, and the beach was an open strip of sand. Now the entire beach was one long line of about a mile and a half of wharfs and lofty warehouses. Behind these ran a wide and handsome street, lined on each side with handsome shops, quite in European style. Large and extensive barracks had been built at West Point, and houses and streets were springing up in all directions. In fact, what had been a barren wilderness a short one year and nine months before, was now converted into a handsome and well-built town. It was days before I could get over the astonishment I felt at the change, and realize all that had taken place in so short a time. There was

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still a very large force in Hong Kong harbour, a great many transports, with their troops on board, and men-of-war, being still there, and the streets of the town were thronged with officers, and soldiers and sailors. An enterprising Frenchman, a Monsieur de Tronqual, had established a very good hotel in the town, which soon became a favourite lounge. The house soon became famous for its suppers, and at night it used to be crowded, and became a sort of "café chantant," after the fashion of Evans' cider-cellars in London. I spent one or two very pleasant evenings there. After a stay of about a fortnight at Hong Kong, we set sail for Singapore, where we arrived in due course, after an uneventful voyage. I found Singapore little altered from what I had known it when last there, on my way to China, two years before. It was very pleasant landing at Singapore, and calling upon all the people whom I had known there before, and dining out, with ladies at table. The Singapore merchants and residents are very hospitable, and a very slight introduction is sufficient to make them welcome you to their houses. The first night the band played on the esplanade we all attended, and the sight of a number of English ladies there, in their carriages, was truly refreshing to us, who had seen nothing of the kind for so long a time.

There was one lady who we used to see at the band who was very pretty and nice looking, and who we all longed to know and speak to, but none of us were fortunate enough to get an introduction to her. Her husband was a quiet merchant, and I dare say did not care about having his house full of young officers flirting with his young and pretty wife whilst he was away at his office, so he did not encourage or make acquaintance with any of us. There were two brothers with the Force, one was a doctor, a clever fellow, and one a brother-sub. of mine. One morning a boat came off to our transport with a note addressed, Mac——, surgeon, my brother-sub. opened it and found it was a request from the pretty lady who we all were longing to know, to call upon her that evening at five o'clock. The note was intended for the doctor, but had been delivered to the wrong brother. Master Mac knew this perfectly well, but the temptation of introducing himself to the pretty lady was too great for him to resist, so he determined to profit of the mistake and wrote to say that he would call as requested. It was running a great risk, but he trusted to his luck to carry him through the matter. At the appointed time the young scapegrace, got up in his very best style, knocked at the lady's door. He was evidently expected and was at once shown into the drawing-room. The lady was not there, but after a little time a servant came in and requested him to follow him into another room. To poor Mac's no small confusion, he was abruptly ushered into the lady's bed-room, where he found her in bed. This was indeed rather more than he had calculated upon and rather more than even his impudence could carry him through, he blurted out something about "a

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mistake," "his brother," and bolted. Fortunately his transport sailed the day after, so the husband of the lady had no opportunity of calling him to an account for his unpardonable conduct.

The day arrived at last when we were to leave Singapore, and when losing sight of the harbour I felt that we were indeed leaving China fairly behind us. We passed through the Straits of Singapore and did not pause at Penang as we did on our way out. Our passage across the Bay of Bengal was rather a strong one with a great deal of rain. At last we sighted Madras on the 19th of January at early dawn, and were at anchor in the Madras roads by twelve o'clock. It is just two years ago since I sailed from this place with my detachment. What an eventful two years it has been to me! We had scarcely anchored when troops of old friends came off to see us; I received the joyful news that I had been gazetted to the horse-artillery and was to join the head-quarters at Bangolore, one of the most delightful stations in India. We all landed on the 20th and we were regaled at a grand dinner given at the Banqueting Hall in our honour by the Commander of Madras. And so ends the history of my first campaign. China certainly is a grand country and capable of being made one of the richest and most prosperous, all it wants is a good government. We certainly found the climate very trying, but we were greatly exposed. I should not mind going back again if England ever gets a footing in the country. The Chinese would not make bad soldiers if properly drilled and looked after, and one great advantage they have is that they have no caste prejudices like the Hindoos, which, to my mind, is no small recommendation, moreover they are quite at home on board ship, will go anywhere, eat anything, and are most useful on board a man-of-war in taking fatigue duties and saving the crew from exposure to the sun.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

THE PUNJAB AND NORTH-WEST FRONTIER OF INDIA. By an Old Punjabi. (London, C. Kegan, Paul & Co.)

The author of this timely book is rather inclined to take a gloomy view of things in India. We term the book *timely*, because at the present moment rumours of Russian activity in Central Asia are flying about in all quarters. According to an Old Punjabi the Civil Government of India is a failure, the mililary rule even more so, the policy of the government timid, half-hearted, and conseqently mischievous, and above all, the confidence which at one time existed between Native troops and their officers, has entirely disappeared. That there is a good deal of truth in what he states, cannot, we fear, be gainsayed. The Native troops do *not* respect their officers as they did in days of yore, when John Company was king; the staff-corps project, which was to do such wonders, has not half realized the expectations of its promoters; and there can be little doubt but that in the mountain ranges round Peshawur and southwards, are tribes which give us a deal of tro uble

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and may yet give us more. The author's suggestions are, however, all practicable, one especially, when he recommends a more general system of recruiting among the frontier tribes, especially upon the principle of "setting a thief to catch a thief;" as it appears that the bravest and most trustworthy soldiers we have on the frontier, are the kinsmen of the very men they are paid to watch.

The book altogether therefore is very instructive; the details which, by themselves, would be dull and tedious, are so diversified by matter, curious and often amusing, as to become eminently readable. The volume, which is illustrated by an excellent map, we find a great pleasure in recommending to our readers.

A Colonial Naval Volunteer Force. A Lecture, by Thomas Brassey, M.P. (London, Longman & Co.)

Mr. Brassey, the popular commander of the Naval Volunteers at home, is anxious that our colonists should form among themselves a similar force to protect their own shores from invasion or attack. Of the necessity for such an organization there cannot be two opinions, and in reminding the colonists that the time has arrived for them to undertake their obligations of self-defence, Mr. Brassey has performed a public service, which those for whose benefit he delivered the lecture will, we have no doubt, be the first to recognise and appreciate. Mr. Brassey thinks ironclads and turret ships to be a better and less expensive protection to harbours and forts, and proceeds to show in how many ways a volunteer naval brigade could be successfully employed in manning and working these floating batteries. The brochure will well repay perusal, and whether it be Naval Volunteers, or Royal Navy Men who take it up, they will find in its pages, we can assure them, much that will be both interesting and improving.

OBITUARY.

General Henry Sykes Stephens, K.H., formerly of the 86th Regiment, and subseqently serjeant-at-arms to the Queen, died at 13 Wilton Place, on the 6th July, in his 83rd year.

General Andrew Rowland, colonel commandant Royal (late Bombay) Artillery, died at Grove Barrs, Horsell, Surrey, on the 29th June, aged 77.

Lieutenant-Colonel John E. Lewis, late 68th Regiment, died at St. Paul's Vicarage, Chatham, on June 22nd, 1877.

Surgeon-Major J. N. Shipton, Army Medical Department, died suddenly at Warwick, on the 2nd July.

Retired Rear-Admiral James Dirom died on the 12th of August, at New Park, Annan, N.B, in his 64th year.

Retired Rear-Admiral Alan H. Gardner, C.B. died suddenly on July 30, at Percy Villas, Kensington, in his 61st year of his age.

Retired Commander John de Courcy Dashwood died on July 29, at 3, Trinity Terrace, Cheltenham, aged 76.

Captain Sir George Biddlecombe, C.B., Kt., died on July 20, at his resdeince, Blackheath, in the 71st year of his age.

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PROMOTIONS AND APPOINTMENTS.

NAVY.

Admiralty, July 19.

The following promotion has been this day made:—Navigating Sub Lieut. M. S. Beatty to be lieut. in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of July 12.

July 22.

Staff Surg. R. B. Siccama has been promoted to the rank of fleet surgeon in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of July 8; Assist.-Paymaster F. R. G, Wright has been promoted to the rank of paymaster in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of July 12.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Lieut. G. R. C. Eyres has been this day placed on the Retired List, with permission to assume the rank and title of retired commander.

July 23.

The undermentioned officers have been promoted to the rank of navigating lieut. in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of the 12th inst.:—F. Roberts, G. A. C. Webb.

Fleet Surg. A. Watson, M.D., has been promoted to the rank of deputy-inspector-gen. of Hospitals and Fleets in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of 3rd inst.

July 31.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1872, Lieut. A. T. Holmes has been this day placed on the Retired List of his rank.

Aug. 3.

The Rev. S. S. O. Morris, M.A., has been appointed chaplain in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of 2nd inst.

Aug. 6.

The following qualified candidates for the Naval Medical Service have been appointed to be surgeons in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of March 30 last:—A. W. May, A. J. J. Johnston, A. L. Roe, J. F. O'Donnell, B.A., M.B., E. R. H. Pollard, F. M. Geoghegan, M.D., F. A. Trevan, J. A. Vasey, J. O'B. Williams, M.D., S. Keays, H. G. Daniel.

Aug. 10.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Lieut. G. B. Drury has been this day placed on the Retired List of his rank.

Aug. 15.

The following promotions to date the 14th inst., have been made:—Com. A. T. Brooke to be capt. in her Majesty's Fleet; Lieut. E. H. M. Davis to be commander in her Majesty's Fleet (special promotion for services at the Cape of Good Hope); Sub-Lieuts. J. Ledgard, H. F. C. Cavendish, Hon. P. M. Hely-Hutchinson, P. C. Raitt, E. P. Chapman, J. M. Caulfeild, S. B. Tomson, E. C. H. Helby, H. Preedy, F. W. Keary, W. F. Tunnard, W. R. H. Edwardes, M. H. M. Seymour, A. B. G. Grenfell, F. H. Boyer, E. Alexander, M. B. Fowke, J. Willison, E. Rae, F. F. Bone, A. L. K. Knapton, E. B. D'Oyly Aplin, Hon. W. Grimston, J. R. J. Simpson, F. R. Gransmore, Hon. S. J. Fortescue, Hon. A. E. Bethell, I. R. Grant, and J. A. Ashworth to be lieutenants in her Majesty's Fleet.

Navigating Sub-Lieut. A. Fitz-Howard Drayson has been promoted to the rank of navigating lieut. in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of July 12.

Aug. 20.

The undermentioned officers have been transferred to the list of lieuts. in her Majesty's Fleet, seniority of July 12; Navigating Lieuts. D. A. Richmond and F. T. Barr.

Captains—H. E. G. Earle, to London, vice Sullivan, period of service expired; R. P. Dennistoun, to Tourmaline, vice Boxer, in-

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valided; J. A. Fisher, to Valorous, (additional); Edward H. Howard, A.D.C., from Hecate to Hercules, vice Fisher; F. Stirling, to Atlanta (training-ship for ordinary seamen), when commissioned; M. Singer, of Glatton, to Hecla, when commissioned; N. Bowden-Smith, of Undaunted, to Euryalus; John D'Arcy, of Euryalus, to Undaunted, when Rear-Admiral Corbett transfers his flag to Euryalus.

Commanders—T. S. Brand, to Cambridge, vice Gye, superseded at own request; Sir W. S. Wiseman, Bart., to Clyde, vice Best, period of service expired; J. E. Pringle, to Vulture, vice Washington, invalided; J. L. Way, to Humber (when commissioned); J. Hext, from Cruizer to St. Vincent, vice Brooke, promoted; F. A. Weatherall, from Impregnable, to Cruiser, vice Hext; H. H. W. Mayow, to Impregnable; R. F. Hammick, to Invincible.

Lieutenants-in-Command—H. J. Robilliard, to Firm; H. B. Lang, to Mallard.

Lieutenants—F. P. Taylor, E. L. Wilson, R. E. Berkeley, H. B. Elwyn, C. H. Coke, W. S. P. Graves, F. E. W. Lambart, and H. G. W. Thorold to Exeellent, (additional), Hon. F. Spring-Rice, to Modeste; H. C. A. Baynes, to Fly; M. S. Beatty, to Excellent; R. F. Yonge, to Vestal; F. Powell, to Argus; K. H. Foote, from Lord Warden to Tourmaline; F. Finnis, to Lord Warden, vice Foote; W. Franklin. to Excellent (for short course of gunnery); T. MacGill, to Vestal (for navigating duties); Fredk. V. Isaacs, from Indus to Implacable; Wm. C. Reid, from Excellent to Rover; H Leah, from Resistance to Tourmaline; F. Finnis, to Resistance; A. J. Farquharson, to Indus; G. R. Bethell, (from Warrior, the Hon. F. C. P. Vereker, and G. S. Gunn, to Alert; W. T. Warren, from Serapis to Indus; S. G. T. Bourke, from Euryalus, to Serapis; R. W. S. Rogers, from Hercules to Euryalus; R. R. M. Hall, from Hercules to Pallas; J. B. Hay, to Hercules; E. E. Maxwell, from Penelope to Jumna; A. E. McMurdo, from Valiant, and E. A. White, from Hecate to Humber; W. Marrack, to Active; H. W. Target to Orontes; F. F. Bone, to Pioneer; E. C. H. Helby, to Sylvia; E. P. Chapman, to Nassau; A. B. G. Grenfell, to Urgent: R. P. Humpage, to Monarch: H. H. G. W. C. Massy, to Warrior.

Navigating Lieutenant—W. H. Petley, to Alert (to date July 20).

Sub-Lieuts.—J H. C. East, to Alert; A. E. Rawnsley, to Seaflower; D. A. Gamble, to Martin; T. F. W. Ingram, to Coquette; R. M. King, to Contest; H, M. Murphy, to Vigilant; H. N. Rolfe, to Euphrates; J. A. Milton, to Squirrel.

Navigating Sub-Lieut.—F. C. A. Crooke, to Express.

Midshipmen—D. St. A. Wake, to Monarch; M. E. Browning, to Invincible.

Naval Cadets—G. M. Courage and H. Orpen, to Iron Duke; S. V. Y. De Horsey, to Triumph; A. G. Cawston, H. S. Boldero, G. R. West, and F. G. Eyre, to Bodicea; C. Chadwick and O. G. V. Spain, to Euryalus; J. W. Bushnell and A. G. Moir, to Minotaur; W. P. Hillyar, G. Oliver, and H. Ashwin, to Black Prince; H. Le D. Staple ton and A. T. Luard, to Téméraire; J. F. Lea and A. H. Limpus, to Alexandra; H. MacInnes, to Invincible; E. K. Hill and C. W. M. Plenderleath, to Achilles; A. H. Christian to Monarch; W. H. Boys, to Bodicea; A. J. Hotham, to Triumph; H. le D. Stapleton, to Euryalus; F. C. Pascoe and E. C. Stagg, to Iron Duke.

Fleet Surgeons — S. Bowden, M.D., to Pembroke Dockyard; W. Patrick, from Alexandra to Portsmouth Dockyard.

Staff Surgeons—R. W. Coppinger, M.D., to Pembroke (for Alert); E. T. Lloyd, to Revenge, vice Coppinger; W. B. Fletcher to Vestal; W. S. Fisher, B.A., M.B., to Daphne; R. Humphreys to Clyde.

Surgeons—A. W. May, A. L. Roe, F. M. Geoghegan, M.D., J. O'B. Williams, M.D., and H. G. Daniel, to Royal Adelaide (ad-

ditional): A. J. J. Johnson, J. F. O'Donnell, B.A., M.B., E. R. H. Pollard: F. A. Trevan, J. A. Vasey, E. Keays, to Duke of Wellington (additional): C. F. Newland, to Humber: C. L. Vasey, to Hong Kong hospital: A. H. Miller, to Hart: H. X, Browne, to Victor Emanuel: J. B. Armstrong, to Hercules (for Merlin): G. Bate, to Hecate: J. Lyon, M.D., to Indus: J. T. W. S. Kellard, to Vestal: G. D. Twigg, to Daphne.

Chaplain and Naval Instructor—Rev. A. Nicolls, B.A., to Boadicea.

Chief Engineers—G. Quick, to Pembroke (for Encounter); S. J. Bord, to Cormorant; W. H. Keats, to Indus, for Dryad; A. Morcom, to Asia (additional).

Engineers—Robert H. Lavers, to Indus, additional for Northumberland; J. Dinwoodie, to Pembroke (additional for Alert); C. Welch, to Arab; Robert B. Turner, to Asia (for Sabrina), vice Welch.

ROYAL MARINES.

Admiralty, July 6.

The following promotions dated July 5, have taken place in the Royal Marine Light Infantry, viz: —Major and Brevet Lieut. Col. C. W. Burton to be lieut. col., vice Evans, retired under the provisions of her Majesty's Orders in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, and Feb. 5, 1872; Capt. G. Johnston to be major, vice Burton: Lieut. C. S. F. Fagan to be capt., vice Johnston.

July 25.

Lieut. T. N. Roberts, Royal Marine Light Infantry, has been removed (July 23), from the list of officers, Royal Marines, on account of ill-health.

July 31.

Lieutenant R. Bennet has been allowed to resign his commission in the Royal Marine Light Infantry.

Aug. 8.

The undermentioned gentlemen have been appointed lieuts., viz.: —Royal Marine Artillery: W. J. Gaitskell, A. Oxford, W. F Trotter, H. L. Talbot, C. L. N. Bishop (all dated Sept. 1, 1876); Royal Marines Light Infantry: J. R. Johnstone (Sept. 1, 1876).

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ARMY.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, July 23.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date July 24, 1878:—

2nd Life Guards—Sub Lieut. Rowland J. Beech to be lieut.; May 11, 1878, but his commission as lieut. in the Army to bear date Oct. 6, 1875.

4th Dragoon Guards—Lieut. Geo. J. Metcalf resigns his commission.

5th Dragoon Guards—Lieut. Thos. J. de Burgh retires from the Service, receiving the value of an ensigncy.

3rd Hussars—Lieut. Wm. Chas. Owen has been apppointed a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps. Super. Lieut. Arthur James R. V. Cortlandt, who has resigned his appointment as a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps, to be lieut., vice T. H. M. Kelly, retired; June 29, 1878.

16th Lancers—Lieut Stephen Frewen, from the West Kent Militia, to be second lieut., vice F. D. H. St. Quintin, transferred to the 17th Lancers.

19th Lancers—Lieut. Clement Smith to be capt., vice P. H. S. Barrow, seconded for service on the Staff, May 25, 1878.

2nd Foot—Sub Lieut. Henry Elston has been appointed a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps.

4th Foot—Captain and Brevet Lieut. Col. Hickman R. Russell, from half-pay, late 57th Foot, to be capt., vice E. R. P. Woodgate, seconded for special service at the Cape of Good Hope.

5th Foot—Second Lieut. Dudley S. Stewart, from the 1st Foot to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. W. F. Way, promoted.

6th Foot—Quartermaster T. P. Geoghegan, from the 25th Foot, to be quartermaster, vice J. B. Tippetts, who exchanges.

8th Foot—Second Lieut. John B. Edwards, from the 13th Foot, to be second lieut., vice H. Seaton, deceased.

10th Foot—Super. Captain and Brevet Major Ernest A. Berger to be major, vice Brevet Lieut. Col. W. H. Davies, retired on a pension; July 13. 1878. Capt. Geo. S. Byng, from half-pay, late Rifle Brigade, to be capt., vice R. G. Southey, seconded for special service at the Cape of Good Hope.

11th Foot—Paymaster and Hon. Major Richard R. Robinson retires on retired pay.

15th Foot—Second Lieut. Bruce Meade Hamilton to be lieut., vice J. R. Sandwith, a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps; May 9, 1878.

18th Foot—Second Lieut. Allan M. Boisragon, from the 107th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. C. Stockley, promoted.

19th Foot—Lieut. Geo. E. Langford to be capt., vice W. R. Iles, promoted half-pay major; July 13, 1878.

24th Foot—Captain Robert N. Surplice, retires from the Service, receiving the value of his commission.

25th Foot—Captain and Brevet Major John Harger to be major, vice Brevet Lieut. Colonel A. S. Cameron, V.C., seconded for service on the Staff; July 1, 1878. Lieut. John Henry Hickman S. D. Hogarth to be capt., vice Brevet Major J. Harger; July 1, 1878. Quartermaster James B. Tippetts, from the 6th Foot, to be quartermaster, vice T. P. Geoghegan, who exchanges.

34th Foot—Second Lieut. Irton Eardley-Wilmot, from the 39th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. A. H. Lowe, promoted.

40th Foot—The appointment as instructor of musketry of Lieut. H. F. Turnbull is antedated to April 24, 1878.

41st Foot—Lieut. James R. P. Clarke, from the 4th West York

Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. A. K. McCausland, promoted.

42nd Foot—Lieut. Mackay John Scobie retires from the Service receiving the value of an ensigncy.

43rd Foot—Lieut. Thomas P. Geoghegan has been appointed a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps.

51st Foot—Lieut. Alexander G. B. Ternan has been appointed a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps.

54th Foot—Lieut. Hugh Munbee Bruce retires from the Service.

62nd Foot—Lieut. Robt Hayne to be capt.; vice Brevet Major J. L. Kelly, promotod: May 11, 1878. Lieut. Wm. B. Williams to be capt., vice T. J. FitzSimon, retired on a pension; July 13, 1878. Lieut. John F. Inglis to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. A Goding, deceased; May 11, 1878.

67th Foot—The appointment as instructor of musketry of Lieut. R. F. Atkinson is antedated to March 2, 1878.

71st Foot—Captain and Brevet Major Maxwell W. Hyslop, from half-pay, late 93rd Foot, to be capt., vice C. L. Harvey seconded for special service at the Cape of Good Hope.

72nd Foot—Lieut. Lister Sunderland, from the Bedford Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. S. D. Gordon, a probotioner for the Indian Staff Corps.

79th Foot—Lieut. Arthur Newton Forbes-Gordon to be captain, vice S. C. L. Bucknall, retired; July 13, 1878.

80th Foot—The surname of the Second Lieut. appointed in the Gazette of May 10, 1878, is Daubeney, and not Daubeny, as therein stated.

90th Foot—Lieut. Aubrey M. Maude to be captain, vice Brevet Major G. E. Perryn, retired on a pension; July 13, 1878.

95th Foot—Lieut. Edwd. Thos. M. Dickin to be capt. vice L. R. Burnett, retired; July 13, 1878.

95th Foot—The surname of Maj. and Brevet Lieut. Col. A. Sceberras is as now described, and not Scheberras, as hitherto stated.

108th Foot—Lieut. George L. H. Starr to be captain, vice J. E. Weatherall, seconded for service as an adjt. of auxiliary forces; March 21, 1878.

109th Foot—Super. Major and Brevet Lieut. Col. August Schmid to be lieut. col., vice Brevet Col. A. A. P. Browne, retired on half-pay; July 13, 1878.

Medical Department.

Surgeon-Major Peter Frederick Newland retires upon temporary half-pay; June 20, 1878. Surgeon George Duncan, half-pay, resigns his commission; July 6, 1878. Surgeon G. Ryan, retires upon temporary half-pay.

Army Pay Department.

The undermentioned Officers having resigned their commissions as combatant officers to be paymasters, with the hon. rank of capt. in the Army, April 1, 1878, such antedate not to carry back pay:—Brevet Major Elliott Arthur Raymond, from capt., half-pay, late 27th Foot. Brevet Maj. John M. M'Nair, from capt, half-pay, late 16th Lancers. Brevet Major Edward Boyle, from capt. 96th Foot. Cayt. Duncan C. O. Spiller, from 22nd Foot. Capt. John Pyne from 19th Foot—Captain John L. Hewson, from 73rd Foot—Capt. Dudley Beaumont, from half-pay late 80th Foot. Capt. Henry W. Bateman, from 31st Foot. Capt. Edmund Eyre Coote, from 58th Foote. Captain Henry Mapleton Compigné, from 106th Foot. Capt. James H. Jackson, from half-pay, late 63rd Foot.

Brevet.

Lieut. Col. Mossom Boyd, Bombay Staff Corps, to be col.: April 3, 1878.

Paymaster and Honorary Major Richard R. Robinson, 11th Foot, to have the hon. rank of lieut. col. on retirement.

Capt. and Hon. Major Arthur Ellis, Barrackmaster, Royal Marine Light Infantry, to have the hon. rank of lieut. col. on retirement.

Deputy Surg.-Gen. Sir Anthony D. Home, K.C.B., V.C., to have

the local rank of surg.-gen. while serving as Principal Medical Officer at Cyprus; July 12, 1878.

Senior Apothecary Lazarus L. Dyce, Retired List, Madras Medical Establishment, to have the hon. and local rank of surg. in the East Indies.

The restriction as regards "local" rank conferred on Hon. Surgeon-Major J. R. Deane, of the Bengal Subordinate Medical Establishment, is removed.

Memoranda.

Major and Brevet Lieut. Colonel Wm. H. Earle, half-pay, late 47th Foot, retires from the Service, receiving the value of his commission; March 29, 1877.

Lieut. Col. Robt. Maunsell, half pay, late Depot Battalion, retires from the Service receiving the value of his commission; July 6, 1878.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, July 23.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date July 24, 1878:—

Artillery.

Royal Cardigan—Sub Lieut. Joseph Bonsall to be lieut.; Dec. 30, 1876.

Royal Cork City—The undermentioned Lieuts. to be capts.:—James C. Beamish. Geo. Norman Roberts. Fredk. Geo. W. Jones, gent., to be second lieut.

Dublin City—Reginald Bragge Sparrow, gent., to be second lieut.

The Duke of Edinburgh's Own Edinburgh—Lieut. Thos Souter resigns his commission.

Royal Glamorgan—Lieut. Chas. B. Mansfield to be capt.

Engineers.

Royal Anglesey—Sub Lieut. Wm. A. Lane-Fox to be lieut.; April 21, 1877.

Infantry.

Royal Berks—The undermentioned Sub Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—Arthur Hargreaves; May 2, 1877. Lancelot S. B. Tristram; June 20, 1877. Tristram J. Wheble; June 25, 1878.

Royal Carnarvon—The undermentioned Sub Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—Chas. W. Roberts: June 20, 1877. Chas. Henry Ashurst: March 20, 1878, with date in General Militia Service of June 25, 1877.

2nd Royal Cheshire—Sub Lieut. James W. Trail to be lieut.; April 16, 1877.

Hertford—Lieut. Col. Robert B. Fellows is granted the hon. rank of col. Geo. F. P. Cooper, gent., to be second lieut.

East Kent—Sub Lieut. Harry S. Blaydes to be lieut.

5th Royal Lancashire—Lieut. Wm. C. Golding to be capt.

Royal North Lincoln—The undermentioned Sub Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—Henry C. H. Allenby; Aug. 9, 1876. Arthur E. Harper; Jan. 10. 1877. Francis Edmd. G. Astley; March 21, 1877.

Royal South Lincoln—The undermentioned Sub Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—Arthur R. Verschoyle; Nov. 15, 1876. Thos. C. Tunnard-Moore; Jan. 31, 1877. Richard G. Smith; April 27, 1877.

Royal East Middlesex—Maj. and Hon. Lieut. Col. Wm. F. Northey resigns his commission; also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement. Second Lieut. Gerard Robt. Rushbrooke to be lieut.

Royal Elthorne, or 5th Middlesex—Major and Hon. Lieut. Col. Wm. H. Bennett resigns his commission; also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement.

2nd or East Forfolk—The undermentioned Sub-lieuts. to be lieuts.:—John Martin Longe; Dec. 4, 1875. Henry Clarke, jun.: March 21, 1877. Hugh Paston Mack; April 4, 1877.

Oxford—Thomas Courtenay T. Warner, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd Somerset—Capt. D. Henry Seymour Smith resigns his commission.

The (King's Own) 1st Stafford—Sub-lieut. Somerset St. Leger-Wood to be May 9, 1877.

Royal Sussex—Major and Hon. Lieut.-Col, Josept Fiennes Blake

resigns his commission; also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of his regiment on his retirement.

The King's Own Royal Tower Hamlets—The undermentioned Sub-Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—Percy Claude Cotton: Oct. 11, 1876. E. Ernest Bloxam Constantine Elin; Jan. 31, 1877. Frederic Charles Robert La Fargue; March 21, 1877.

Royal Wiltshire—Sub-Lieut. A. Knatchbull Wilkinson Peacock to be lieut.: March 20, 1875.

Royal Ayr and Wigtown—Sub-Lieut. George Brisbane Douglas resigns his commission.

The Edinburgh, or Queen's Regiment of Light Infantry—Captain William John Wauchope to be major; June 17, 1878.

Scottish Borderers—Lieut. A. Mackenzie, from the Oxford Militia, to be lieut.

Antrim—Capt. and Adjt. R. J. Hickman is granted the hon. rank of Major.

Royal South Down—Major A. Vesey Davoren is granted the hon. rank of Lieut.-Col.

Dublin County—Lieut. Henry Thomas Finlay resigns his commission. Henry Evelyn Tombe, gent., to be second lieut.; July 8, 1878.

Galway—Capt. William Rogers is granted the hon. rank of major.

Kerry—Capt. and Hon. Major Francis McGillicuddy resigns his commission; also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement.

The Prince of Wales' Royal Regiment of Longford Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Humphrey Brooke Firman to be lieut. Dated March 23, 1878, with date in General Militia Service of Jan. 19, 1876.

South Mayo—James Charles V. Blake, Gent., to be second lieut.; July 8, 1878.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Royal East Kent—Lieut. Fred. Locke to be capt.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, July 23.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date July 24, 1878:—

6th Cinque Ports Artillery—W. Reeve, gent., to be second lieut.

5th Cornwall Artillery—Godby Richardson, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

12th Lancashire Artillery—Sub-Lieut. William Orme Handy resigns his commission.

17th Lancashire Artillery—Sub Lieut. James Pyer resigns his commission.

19th Lancashire Artillery—Sub-Lieut. John Hughes Brown resigns his commission. Sub-Lieut. Charles Pawson Brown resigns his commission.

21st Lancashire Artillery—C. J. Trimble, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd Middlesex Artillery—Sub-Lieut. Ernest Mosley to be lieut.; Feb. 23, 1876. Sub-Lieut. H. W. Cox to be lieut.; Dec. 2, 1876. F. Bardo, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

1st Shropshire Artillery—Capt. Sir Henry George Harnage, Bart., resigns his commission.

1st Lancashire Engineers—Lieut. John Isaac Ardran resigns his commission. Sub-Lieut. Ed. Johnson Astley resigns his commission.

9th Aberdeenshire Rifles—Captain William A. Alexander resigns his commission.

7th Bedfordshire Rifles—Lieut. William Race Raynes to be capt.

1st Berkshire Rifles—Frederick Simmonds, gent., to be second lieut. Stephen Hall Goodhart, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

1st Buckinghamshire Rifles—S. Thompson, Esq., to be major.

3rd Cambridgeshire Rifles—W. Copley Carr, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

7th Cheshire Rifles—Capt. A. Day resigns his commission.

1st Devonshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Thomas Augustine Redway resigns his commission.

9th Devonshire Rifles—Lieut. P. F. S. Amery to be captain.

14th Dumbartonshire Rifles—

Henry Melville Napier, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Forfarshire Rifles—The surname of the lieut. whose promotion to be capt. appeared in the London Gazette of June 18, 1878, is Primerose, not Primrose, as therein stated.

3rd Glamorganshire Rifles—P. Doddridge Price, gent., to be second lieut. Arthur Llewellyn Pearse, gent., to be second lieut.

11th Hampshire Rifles—George Ferris Widborne Mortimer, Esq., to be capt.

1st Kent Rifles—Henry Powys Loraine Estridge, gent., to be second lieut.

5th Kent Rifles—Sub-Lieut. L. W. Vaile resigns his commission.

25th Lanarkshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut David Dehane Napier to be lieut.; April 25, 1877.

55th Lanarkshire Rifles—James Swan, gent., to be second lieut.

8th Administrative Battalion Lancashire Rifles—Major Arthur Ingram Robinson to be lieut.-col. Capt. William Archibald Dewhurst, 62nd Lancashire Rifle Volunteer Corps, to be Major.

2nd Lancashire Rifles—Major Arthur Ingram Robinson to be lieut.-col.

6th Lancashire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Frederick Haworth to be lieut.; Jan. 20, 1877. Sub-Lieut. William Compton Hall to be lieut.; March 7, 1877. Second Lieut. R. Henry Markham Hartshorn to be lieut.

80th Lancashire Rifles—Capt. Robert E. Stewart to be major.

4th Middlesex Rifles—Captain William G. Constable resigns his commission.

14th Middlesex Rifles—Charles Blomfield Dalton, gent., to be second lieut.

20th Middlesex Rifles—Lieut. Jabez Pope resigns his commission.

22nd Middlesex Rifles—Capt. Edward James Watherston resigns his commission. Sub-Lieut. Philip Joseph Canning to be lieut.; March 21, 1877. Sub-Lieut. G. Daniel Rose to be lieut.; May 9, 1877.

36th Middlesex Rifles—Major Thomas Henry Baylis to be lieut.-col. Capt. Edward William Duffield Baylis to be major. Lieut. Hildred Edward Carlyle to be capt.

37th Middlesex Rifles—Edward William Jaquet, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

40th Middlesex Rifles—Lieut. James Edmund Stuart Forbes resigns his commission.

1st Oxfordshire Rifles—Capt. J. Liddell Walker resigns his commission.

21st Somersetshire Rifles—The second Christian name of the Second Lieut., whose appointment appeared in the London Gazette of July 2, 1878, is Bagehot and not as therein stated.

12th Stirlingshire Rifles—Rob. Dobbie, gent., to be lieut.

5th Surrey Rifles—Herbert S. Stone, to be acting surgeon.

13th Surrey Rifles—William B. Payne, gent., to be lieut. James Macfarlane, gent., to be second lieut.

23rd Surrey Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Alfred Josiah Griffin to be lieut. Jan. 10, 1877.

2nd Warwickshire Rifles—Lieutenant Herbert Samuel Reed to be capt.

2nd Worcestershire Rifles—Capt. Henry James Bailey resigns his commission. Lieut. William Norris to be capt.

11th East Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Second Lieut. James Watson resigns his commission. H. A. Silvester, gent., to be second lieut.

1st North Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Lieut. Charles James Russell to be capt.

3rd West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Robert George Armitage to be lieut.; June 28, 1876.

7th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Capt. Edmund Wilson to be major.

32nd West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Captain John M. Dyson resigns his commission, also is permitted to retain his rank, and

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to continue to wear the uniform of the corps on his retirement.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, July 30.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date July 30, 1878:—

Commissariat and Transport Department.

Assistant-Commissary Joseph Forrest to be deputy commissary (super.), vice J. Thompson, who retired upon temporary half-pay; June 29, 1878.

Ordnance Store Department.

Sergeant Major John Berry, late of the Army Service Corps, to be sub assist.-commissary, in succession to Assistant-Commissary Stonhouse, deceased.

Chaplain's Department.

The commission of the Rev. E. A. Alder-son, M.A, as Chaplain of the Fourth Class, to be antedated to June 3, 1869, such antedate not to carry back pay.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, July 30.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date July 31, 1878:—

Artillery.

Royal Cork City—J. Francis, Earl of Bandon, late Major, to be hon. col. of the regiment.

Haddington, Berwick, Linlithgow, and Peebles—Sub-Lieut. A. Laird Campbell to be lieut.; May 28, 1877.

Royal Pembroke—Captain and Adjt. P. Lewes, Royal Artillery, resigns his commission.

1st or South Tipperary—Lieut. Charles Wm. Chadwick resigns his commission.

Wicklow—Sub-Lieut. C. R. D. Gun Cuninghame to be lieut.; Dec. 29, 1875.

Engineers.

Royal Monmouthshire—Sub-Lieut. C. S. Foote to be lieut.; March 21, 1877.

Infantry.

Royal Denbigh and Merioneth—The undermentioned Sub-Lieutenants to be lieuts.:—R. C. Bell; Sept. 6, 1876, R. B. Barker; Feb. 24, 1877. C. R. Mostyn-Owen; March 21, 1877.

2nd or South Devon—Lieut. W. Jackson McCoy resigns his commission.

The Essex Rifles—Sub Lieut. E. C. Kyrle Money to be lieut.; Oct. 11, 1876.

Leicestershire—The undermentioned Gentlemen to be second lieuts:—F. J. Eyre. William P. Strong Blucke.

Royal London—Rob. Edwards, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Somerset—H. E. Hicks, gent., to be second lieut.; July 18, 1878.

West Suffolk—A. M. Wilson, gent., to be second lieut.

The Queen's Own Royal Tower Hamlets—The name of the gentleman whose appointment as Second Lieut. appeared in the London Gazzette of June 14, 1878, is the Hon. S. F. H. Lane-Fox, and not as therein stated.

6th West York—Lieut. James Skene, from the Royal Denbigh and Merioneth Militia, to be capt. Second Lieut. F. J. Talfourd Chater resigns his commission.

The Edinburgh or Queen's Regiment of Light Infantry—Lieut. the Hon. Richard Baillie-Hamilton resigns his commission; May 1, 1878.

2nd Royal Lanark—Sub-Lieut. William Bertram to be lieut.; Jan. 20, 1877.

South Cork—Lieut.-Col. Sir A. Riversdale Warren. Bart., is granted the hon. rank of col.

Kerry—Capt. and Hon. Major R. Roberts, late adjt., is permitted to commute his retired pay; June 21, 1878.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Berks—Sub-Lieut. G. O. Sloper to be lieut.; Dec. 16, 1876. John Brooks, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

Westmorland and Cumberland—The undermentioned Sub-Lieutenants to be lieutenants:—H. C. Howard; March 20, 1875. Lamplugh Freschville Ballantine-Dykes; Jan. 31, 1877. Edward Hugh Wilson; June 5, 1877.

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Royal Wiltshire—Lieut. N. Barton to be capt. (super.)

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, July 30.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions to bear date July 31:—

3rd Aberdeenshire Artillery—Charles Mann Crombie, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

10th Argyllshire Artillery—A. Coulter, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Administrative Brigade Cumberland Artillery—Hon. Assistant-Surg. Joseph Pearson, M.D.. 3rd Cumberland Artillery Volunteer Corps, to be surg.

2nd Cumberland Artillery—Sub Lieut. Frederic Yeld to be lieut.; Dec. 11, 1875.

3rd Essex Artillery—Lieut. Geo. Moore resigns his commission.

8th Lancashire Artillery—Ralph H. Clay, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd Middlesex Artillery—John M. Mewman, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

3rd Middlesex Artillery—Capt. Wm. H. Boucher resigns his commission.

1st Northumberland Artillery—Shallett J. Dale, gent., to be sec. lieut.

6th Orkney Artillery—Second Lieut. Archibald Petrie to be lieut. Wm. R. Walls, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Sussex Artillery—Captain Thos. Lainson resigns his commission.

1st Durham Engineers—Capt. John J. Bentham resigns his commission.

9th Devonshire Rifles—Edmund F. Tanner, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Hampshire Rifles—Surgeon Beresford N. Earle resigns his commissions. Arthur Robert W. Sedgefield, gent., to be act. surg.

2nd Herefordshire Rifles—Capt. John L. Piddocke resigns his commission; July 22, 1878. Richard H. Capper, Esq., to be capt., July 22, 1878.

1st Isle of Wight Rifles—Frank Dashwood, gent., to be lieut.

2nd Isle of Wight Rifles—Sub Lieut. Chas. E. T. Mew to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1875. Sub Lieut. Henry J. Way to be lieut.; Feb. 10, 1877.

1st Kent Rifles—Lieut. Cornwallis P. W. Martin to be capt.

1st Lancashire Rifles—Lieut. Philip W. Juncker resigns his commission.

1st London Rifles—C. Towse, gent., to be second lieut. Arthur G. Richards, gent., to be second lieut. Walter W. Young, gent., to be second lieut. Fredk. Porter gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

21st Middlesex Rifles—Lieut. Albert H. Gribble resigns his commission.

22nd Middlesex Rifles—Lieut. Henry De Castro to be capt.

36th Middlesex Rifles—Lieut. Thomas H. Ingram to be capt.

2nd Monmouthshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Samuel J. Green resigns his commission.

6th Monmouthshire Rifles—Richard A. Bosanquet, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd Administrative Battalion Shropshire Rifles—Capt. John S. Langlands, 43rd Foot, to be adjt., vice Lock, promoted to be major in the 82nd Foot; Jnly 20, 1878.

3rd Shropshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. John G. Harrison to be lieut.; Dec. 30, 1876.

13th Shropshire Rifles—Sub Lieut Geo. White Allinson to be lieut.; May 20, 1876.

15th Shropshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Geo. W. Humphreys to be lieut.; May 20, 1876.

18th Shropshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Thomas C. Bird to be lieut.; Aug. 9, 1873.

2nd Administrative Battalion Somersetshire Rifles—Henry B. Patton, Esq., to be major.

12th Somersetshire Rifles—Hon. Assist.-Surg. James Nicolls, M.D., resigns his commission.

6th Staffordshire Rifles—Henry Parker, Esq., to be capt. Lieut. Stephen Clive resigns his commission.

34th Staffordshire Rifles—Capt. Wm. J. Stubbs resigns his commission, also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to

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wear the uniform of the corps on his retirement.

10th Surrey Rifles—Lieut. Wm. Rawson Lyon resigns his commission.

5th Wiltshire Rifles—Lieut. John A. Randell to be capt.

1st North Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—John H. H. Burton, gent., to be second lieut.

4th West Riding of Yorkshire Rtfles—Capt. Ferdinand J. Tidmarsh, 33rd Foot, to be adjt., vice Campbell, promoted to be major in the 33rd Foot.

6th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Thos. Pearson Crosland to be lieut.; July 5, 1876.

7th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Frederic W. Walker, gent., to be second lieut.

19th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Wilfrid Louis B. Hirst to be lieut.; Sept. 6, 1876.

32nd West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. George Edwd. Nelson to be lieut.; June 7, 1876.

41st West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Wm. James F. Dandieon to be lieut.; May 3, 1875.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Aug. 2.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Aug. 3, 1878:—

Chaplains' Department.

The Rev. Francis D, Backhouse to be chap. of the Fourth Class; Jan 3, 1878, such antedate not to carry back allowances.

Memorandum.

Act. Assist.-Paymaster Charles F. H. Beardmore, from Assistant-Com., half-pay, to be assist.-paymaster in the Army; Sept. 28, 1877.

War Office, Aug. 6.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Aug. 7, 1878:—

1st Life Guards—Lieut. Arthur Henry J. Walsh, from the Royal South Wales Borderers Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. W., Viscount Grimston, retired.

6th Dragoon Guards—Lieut. Aubene George Fife, from the 5th Lancers, to be capt., vice W. H. MacGeorge, seconded, from 16, June, 1878, for service as an adj. of the auxiliary forces.

12th Lancers—Lieut. the Hon. Geo. W. H. Vernon, from the Scots Guard, to be lieut., vice the Hon. A. F. H. Campbell, who exchanges.

16th Lancers—Lieut. Windham H. Windham-Quin, from the 1st Royal Lancaster Militia, to be sec. lieut., in succession to Sub Lieut. R. J. Beech, transferred to the 2nd Life Guards.

Royal Artillery—Lieut.-General Sir Arnold B. Kemball, K.C.S.I., C.B. (late Bombay), to be colonel-com. vice General A Rowland (late Bombay), upon the Retired List, deceased; June 30, 1878. Major Henry R. Martin to be lieut. col. vice A. H. Murray, placed upon the Seconded List; June 18, 1878. Capt. Seymour H. Toogood, from the Super. List, to be major, vice Martin, promoted; June 18, 1878. Capt. Evelyn Baring, C.S.I., from the Seconded List, to be maj. vice T. B. Hamilton, who retires upon a gratuity. Captain Henry Norris Jones to be major, vice E. Baring, C.S.I., placed upon the Seconded List. Major Edward O. Hollist, from the Super. List, to be major, vice H. L. Mitchell, placed upon the Seconded List; Aug. 1, 1878. Lieut. Douglas F. Jones to be captain, vice G. G. Nelson, (late Bengal), deceased; June 29, 1878. Capt. Hugh I. E. Ford, (late Bengal), from the Super. List, to be capt., vice A. D. Anderson, (late Bengal), placed upon the Seconded List; July 18, 1878. Capt. John A. S. M. Davies, from the Super. List, to be capt., vice G. A. French, C.M.G., placed upon the Seconded List; Aug. 1, 1878. Lieut. Wm. L. C. Gordon to be capt., vice E. Montefiore (late Bombay), placed upon the Seconded List; Aug. 1, 1878. Lieut. Archibald E. Duthy to be capt., vice H. N. Jones, promoted. Lieut. Kenneth F. Maclachan to be capt., vice W. B. Troup, (late Bengal), placed upon

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the Seconded List. Lieut. Henry D. Dunlop to be capt., vice F. L. G. Little, who retires upon half-pay. Lieut. James D. Legard, to be capt., vice W. F. de H. Curtis, placed upon the Seconded List, Lieut. Cameron M. H. Downing to be capt., vice H. A. T. Custance, upon a gratuity.

The following Gentlemen Cadets from the Royal Military Academy, to be lieuts.; Jan. 31, 1878, such antedate not to carry back pay prior to July 31, 1878:—Francis C. E. Childers, vice A. T. Gehle, deceased. Edward Arthur Fanshawe, vice A. M. Renny, placed upon the Seconded List. Charles E. Callwell, vice W. P. Kelly, resigned. William St. P. Bunbury, vice R. B. Place, deceased. Frederick H. J. Birch, vice L. J. A. Chapman, placed upon the Super. List. Frederick B. Lecky, vice H. A. T. Custance, promoted. Charles Forbes Blane, vice H. H. Crockenden, promoted. Hugh H. Rogers, vice J. R. S. O. Hewitt, promoted. Charles Bell Watkins, vice J. A. F. Nutt, promoted. Thos. G. Thistlethwayte, vice F. H. French, promoted. Arthur Sankey, vice A. H. Armytage, promoted. Henry Hyde Champion, vice W. Cotton, promoted. Thomas F. Bushe, vice A. L. Pringle, promoted. James S. Douglas, vice W. T. G. Denny, promoted. Claude R. J. Cane, vice A. J. Dunnage, promoted. John P. W. Freeman, vice H. A. Rigg, promoted. Reginald Geo. McQueen McLeod, vice J. F. Harman, promoted. Reginald Henry Mahon, vice G. B. N. Martin, promoted. Arthur H. Simpson, vice J. S. Clarke, promoted. Arthur B. Helyar, vice A. W. Heath, deceased. Archibald L. Hibbert, vice A. F. Makeller, deceased. Conway R. D. Higginson, vice D. F. Jones, promoted. Edward U. Marrett, vice W. B. St. George, deceased. Christopher W. Moore Lane, vice C. H. L. Mercer, resigned. Alfred Matthews, vice C. E. Brown, placed upon the Super. List. Atherton E. Powell, vice F. M. Longcroft, resigned. Edward John Garnet, vice C. J. Freeth deceased. Major Leonard Griffiths, upon the Seconded List, retires upon a pension. Capt. Charles F. Baring Grey to be adjt., vice J. M. Murray, who resigns the adjutancy only; Aug. 1, 1878. Sergt.-Major John J. C. Powell to be quartermaster, Super. to the Establishment; April 1, 1878.

The undermentioned Officers are placed upon the Seconded List from the dates specified against their names, viz:—Lieut. Thomas T. Vaughan; July 26, 1878. Lieut. James V. V. Baker. Lieut. Wilton W. M. Seymour. Quartermaster William Wishart; July 1, 1878. Quartermaster Alex. Arbuthnot; July 1, 1878. Quartermaster E. Simons; July 1, 1878. Quartermaster Jonathan Forsdyke; July 1, 1878.

Royal Engineers—The following Gentlemen Cadets, from the Royal Military Academy, to be lieuts.; Jan. 31, 1878, viz.:—Alfred M. Mantell, vice H. L. Mulholland, resigned. Paul R. Burn-Murdoch, vice J. E. Gibbs, deceased. Godfrey Williams, vice H. P. N. Nicholls, deceased. Wm. Huskisson, vice G. Hildebrand, promoted. Thos. A. Cregan, vice W. J. Gill, promoted. Edwd. Druitt, vice J. T. Wright, promoted. Harold F. Chesney, vice A. Awdry, promoted. Henry J. W. Brownrigg, vice S. Waller, promoted. Henry Lawrence C. H. Stafford, vice A. C. Alexander, promoted. Francis J. Anderson, vice A. R. Pusey, promoted. Leonard A. Arkwright, vice J. Matheson, promoted. Phillip C. Gubbins, vice J. B. Lindsell, promoted. Wm. Alan Cairnes, vice W. G. Nicholson, promoted. Godfrey H. W. Stockdale, vice G. Henry, seconded.

Coldstream Guards—Second Lt. Guy T. S. Sebright, from the 106th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. and Capt. W. P. Otway, promoted.

Scots Guards—Lieut. the Hon. Alexander F. H. Campbell, from the 12th Lancers to be lieut., vice the Hon. G. W. H. Vernon, who exchanges. The appointment

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as adjt. of Lieut. E. L. S. Brett is antedated to April 2, 1878.

3rd Foot—Lieut. Alex. McLachlan, from the 5th Royal Lancashire Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. W. C. Howarth, promoted.

4th Foot—The Christian names of Second Lieut. Carter, appointed in the Gazette of May 10, 1878, are Ernest Augustus Frederic.

7th Foot—Maj. H. Plummer retires on a pension.

9th Foot—Major A. B. Morgan, from the 19th Foot, to be major, vice W. H. Burland, who exchanges.

10th Foot—Lieut. Henry C. S. Goldfrap to be adjut., vice Lieut. R. G. Wharton, who has resigned that appointment.

12th Foot—Capt. Harry Leigh Townshend retires from the Service, receiving a gratuity. The name of the captain whose retirement on a pension with the hon. rank of major was notified in the Gazette of April 30th, 1878, is Fetherstonhaugh not Featherstonehaugh, as hitherto stated. Sub-Lieut. Wm. F. Percival to be lieut.; April 28, 1877.

13th Foot—Lieut. H. R. Lloyd, from the Royal Pembroke Artillery Militia, to be second lieut., vice J. B. Edwards, transferred to the 8th Foot.

15th Foot—Lieut. Cecil Francis Harrison, from the 1st Warwick Militia, to be second lieut., vice B. M. Hamilton, promoted.

19th Foot—Major William H. Burland, from the 9th Foot, to be major, vice A. B. Morgan, who exchanges.

39th Foot—Second Lieut. G. A. McCarthy, from the 99th Foot, to be second lieut., vice J. E. Wilmot, transferred to the 34th Foot.

51st Foot—Lieut. W. B. Butler, from the Clare Militia, to be sec. lieut., in succession to Lieut. A. G. B. Ternan, a Probationer for the Indian Staff Corps.

60th Foot—Capt. A. A. A. Kinloch, is seconded for service on the Staff; July 5, 1875.

61st Foot—Lieut. C. F. Baxter, from the Royal South Gloucester Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. R. H. Corbett, promoted.

62nd Foot—Capt. William L. R. Scott retires on a pension.

70th Foot—Capt. H. W. R. de Coëtlogon retires from the Service, receiving a gratuity.

83rd Foot—Major and Brevet Lieut.-Col. J. Wakefield retires on half-pay.

87th Foot—Lieut. William S. J. Barry, from the 1st Royal Lancashire Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. W. S. Terry, promoted.

90th Foot—Lieut. Arthur W. Elliott retires from the Service, receiving the value of Ensigncy.

95th Foot—Lieut. J. G. Sparkes to be adjutant, vice Lieut. L. R. Burnett, who resigned that appointment previous to his promotion to the rank of capt.; Feb. 16, 1878.

Commissariat and Transport Department—Deputy Commissary E. Hughes to have the local and temporary rank of commissary in Transvaal; June 12, 1878.

Ordnance Store Department—Commissary-Gen. Sir Henry W. Gordon, K.C.B., retires upon a military allowance; July 9, 1878. Assist. Com.-Gen. W. C. Nangle to be deputy com.-gen., in succession to Sir H. W. Gordon; July 9, 1878. Assist. Com.-Gen. J. O. Hamley, C.B., to be deputy com.-gen.; July 9, 1878. Assist. Com.-Gen. G. G. Munro to be deputy com.-gen.; July 9, 1878. Com H. F. Travers to be assist. com.-gen., vice Nangle; July 9, 1878. Dep. Com. J. Elliot to be com., vice Travers; July 9, 1878. Sergeant-major Wm. McCaulis, from the Royal Artillery, to be sub-assist.-com.

Army Pay Department—The undermentioned Officers having resigned their commissions as Combatant Officers, to be paymasters, with the hon. rank. of capt. in the army; April 1, 1878, such antecedent not to carry back pay: Brevet-Major Wm. Franklin, from Capt., 76th Foot. Capt. W. J. E. G. Sutherland, from 44th Foot.

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Capt. W. L. Brockman, from 86th Foot.

Staff—Lieut.-Col. William K. Elles, 38th Foot, to be assist. adj.-gen. at Headquarters, vice Brevet Col. George Richards Greaves, C.B., appointed Chief of the Staff at Cyprus: 22nd July, 1878.

Brevet.

Lieut.-Col. Harry Lewis Evans, Royal Marine Light Infantry, to have the hon. rank of col. on retirement: 5th July, 1878.

Major Heathcote Plummer, 7th Foot, to have the hon. rank of lieut.-col. upon retiring on a pension: 8th August, 1878.

Major Leonard Griffiths, Royal Artillery, to have the hon. rank of lieut.-col. upon retiring on a pension.

Paymaster and Hon. Capt. R. Stein Forlong, 25th Foot, to have the hon. rank of major: July 10, 1878.

Captain William Lane R. Scott, 62nd Foot, to have the hon. rank of major upon retiring on a pension.

The undermentioned officers of Her Majesty's Indian Military Forces to be granted a step of hon. rank on retirement:—Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Col. Fred. Wm. Graham, Bengal Staff Corps, to be maj.-gen. Lieut.-Col. Henry Z. Darrah, Bengal Staff Corps, to be col. Lieut.-Col. Alleyne Fitzherbert Fenton Bloomfield, Madras Staff Corps, to be col.

Memorandum.

Lieut.-Col. Samuel Hood Strovin Inglefield, late Royal Artillery, has been permitted to commute his half-pay; July 4, 1878.

Capt. and Brevet Major George J. Teevan, half-pay, late 94th Foot. retires from the Service, receiving the value of his commission: July 20, 1878.

Hon. Maj. John H. Bamfield, late Capt. 11th Foot, has been permitted to commute his pension: July 17, 1878.

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MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, August 6.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date August 7, 1878:—

Artillery.

West Cork—Percy G. Walker, gent. to be second lieut.: July 13, 1878.

Dublin City—Lieut.-Col. and Hon. Col. Francis de Burgh resigns his commission; also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement.

Yorkshire—Lieut. A. Elderton, from the Royal Meath Militia, to be lieut.

Infantry.

1st Derby—Sec. Lieut. Arthur H. Tylden-Pattenson to be lieut.

2nd Derby—Sub-Lieut. the Hon. D. E. H. Stanhope to be lieut.: Jan. 10, 1877.

Hereford—The undermentioned Sub-Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—Chas. E. Dashwood: April 28, 1875. E. F. S. Stanhope: Oct. 16, 1875. Richard C. C. Cox: Dec. 30, 1876. The undermentioned Sec. Lieuts to be lieuts.: H. Harvey. H. C. D. Kennard.

West Kent—The undermentioned Sec. Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—Wm. M. C. White and John W. H. West.

1st Royal Lancashire—The undermentioned Sec. Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—John R. Walker and the Hon. A. D. Charteris. The undermentioned gents. to be lieuts.:—James E. Renshaw and Wm. C. Renshaw.

2nd Royal Lancashire—The undermentioned Sub.-Lieuts to be lieuts.:—George O'Neil Segrave: Dec. 6, 1876. E. H. Molyneux-Seel: Jan. 20, 1877.

3rd Royal Lancashire—Lieut Joseph Langton resigns his commission.

6th Royal Lancashire—Sub.-Lieut. Arthur De Salis Hadow to be lieut.: April 3, 1877.

Royal East Middlesex—Capt. and Brev. Maj. G. J. Teevan, half-pay, late 94th Foot, resigns his commission: July 20, 1878.

1st Somerset—Maj. S. Patten

is granted the rank of hon. lieut.-col. The undermentioned Second Lieuts. to be lieuts:—B. S. P. Tomlin. T. L. Walsh.

West Suffolk—Rob. B. Graham, gent., to be second lieut.

Royal Sussex—The undermentioned Sub.-Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—Francis Alex. Fortescue: Dec. 6, 1876. Arthur Thos. Digby Neave: Dec. 30, 1876. Joseph Godman; June 23, 1877.

The King's Own Royal Tower Hamlets — The undermentioned gents. to be Second Lieuts.:—Henry F. Bowles. Nathaniel W. G. M. Massey.

2nd Warwick—The undermentioned Sub-Lieuts. to be Lieuts.:—John E. R. Campbell; Dec. 6, 1876. Walter L. Fenwick; Feb. 7, 1877. Alex. J. B. Redmayne; March 3, 1877.

Royal Wiltshire — Henry W. Carter, gent., to be second lieut.

Worcester—Sub.-Lieut. Chas. A. Rouse-Boughton Knight, from the Hereford Militia, to be lieut.; July 13, 1878.

North York — Sub-Lieut. N. Bentley to be lieut.; Oct. 11, 1876.

Highland Borderers Light Infantry—Second Lieut. Wm. F. Forbes, resigns his commission; July 25, 1878. The resignation of Lieut. John Buchanan, notified in the London Gazette of June 18, 1878, is cancelled.

Renfrew—W. R. Shaw-Stewart, gent., to be second lieut.

Antrim—Lieut. John Preston to be capt.

South Cork—Capt. James H. F. Donegan is granted the hon. rank of maj.

Royal Limerick County—Sub-Lieut. R. G. E. Twiss, to be lieut.; May 9, 1877.

Monaghan—Francis B. Woodwright, gent., to be second lieut.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Royal East Kent—Surg.-Major C. G. Logie, half-pay, late Royal Horse Guards, to be surg.

Duke of Lancaster's Own—Sub-Lieut. Peter Carlaw Walker to be lieut.; April 18, 1877.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Aug. 2.

Where not otherwise specified. the following commissions bear date Aug. 3, 1878:—

1st Fifeshire Light Horse—Rob. A. Dalyell, gent., to be second lieut. (super.) Lieut. R. Jackson to be captain. Sub-Lieut. George Prentice to be lieut.: July 21, 1875. Sub-Lieut. the Hon. Fred. J. Bruce to be lieut.; Dec. 20, 1876.

1st Forfarshire Light Horse—Wm. T. Grant, gent., to be acting-surg.

6th Cinque Ports Artillery—Sub Lieut. Leigh R. Fowell, from the 3rd Middlesex Volunteer Corps, to be sub-lieut.

3rd Glamorganshire Artillery—Bathurst B. Mann, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

10th Kent Artillery—Wm. A. Ellis, gent., to be acting-surg.

3rd Middlesex Artillery—John E. Gutch, to be second lieut.

1st Worcestershire Artillery—W. R. Deykin, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

1st West Riding of Yorkshire Artillery—Lieut. John D. Brown to be capt.

1st Gloucestershire Engineers—Chas. E. Gibson, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd Administrative Battalion Cheshire Rifles—Surg. J. Taylor resigns his commission.

23rd Derbyshire Rifles—George W. Rhodes, gent., to be second lieut..

1st Devonshire Rifles—William Alex. Forbes, gent., to be second lieut.

21st Devonshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. J. D. Jones resigns his commission.

16th Glamorganshire Rifles—Lieut. Fred. R. Griffiths resigns his commission.

1st Isle of Wight Rifles—Second Lieut. H. B. Mew to be lieut.

4th Lancashire Rifles—Louis J. Aitken, gent., to be second lieut.

80th Lancashire Rifles—Walter Henry Pride, gent., to be second lieut.

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1st Administrative Battalion

Leicestershire Rifles—Major R. M. Nicolls, late Adjut., has been permitted to commute his retired pay; July 11, 1878.

1st Leicestershire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. A. S. Brindley to be lieut.; May 5, 1875.

36th Middlesex Rifles—Lieut. A. C. Radcliffe resigns his commission. Second Lieut. Richard C. Johnson to be lieut.

36th Somersetshire Rifles—Lieut. E. Harte to be capt. Sub-Lieut. L. E. Newnham to be lieut.; Feb. 2, 1876. Reginald L. Foster, gent., to be second lieut.

3rd Warwickshire Rifles—Lieut. John Collins to be capt.

2nd Westmoreland Rifles—John Nanson, Esq., to be capt.

5th Wiltshire Rifles—Alfred B. Fisher, gent., to be lieut. George S. A. Wavlen, gent., to be second lieut.

5th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. W. Norwood to be lieut.; May 9, 1877.

17th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Chas. H. Wilkinson resigns his commission.

29th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Harry Frith to be lieut.; March 7, 1877.

32nd West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Lieut. Thos. Beardsell to be capt.; Aug. 7, 1877.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Aug. 13.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Aug. 14, 1878:—

Brigade Depot—Brevet Col. A. A. P. Browne, from half-pay, late 109th Foot, to be lieut.-col., vice Brevet Col. F. G. Hibbert, who was transferred to the 20th Foot.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Aug. 13.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Aug. 14, 1878:—

Artillery.

The Prince of Wales's Own Norfolk—The undermentioned Sub-Lieuts. to be lieuts.;—H. J. Preston; Aug. 26, 1876. E. A. H. Alderson; March 3, 1877.

Engineers.

Royal Anglesey—Thomas L. Hampton-Lewis, Esq., late Capt. 5th Dragoon Guards, to be lieut.-col.

Infantry.

Royal North Gloucester—The undermentioned Sub-Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—A. W. H. Beach; June 30, 1867, with date in General Militia Service of Feb. 7th, 1877. G. L. Holford; June 30th, 1877.

5th Royal Lancashire—Sub-Lieut. Wm. M. Wood to be lieut.; May 26, 1877.

Royal Montgomery—Sub-Lieut. P. A. D. A. Lovell to be lieut.; March 21, 1877. The undermentioned Second Lieuts. to be lieuts.: F. J. P. L. M. Hartmann. W. G. Fulton.

The King's (Own) 1st Stafford—Lieut.-Col. H. Talbot is granted the hon. rank of col.

2nd Royal Surrey—William R. Lyon, gent., to be lieut.: July 1, 1877.

The Highland Light Infantry—The name of the gent. whose appointment as sub-lieut. (super.), and subsequent promotion to the rank of lieut., appeared in the London Gazette of May 2, 1876, and Aug. 14, 1877, respectively, is Basil Henry Scott-Murray, and not as therein stated.

Scottish Borderers—The transfer of Lieut. A. Mackenzie, from the Oxford Militia, not in the London Gazette of July 23, 1878, to bear date July 1, 1878, instead of July 24, 1878.

Carlow—The undermentioned Sub-Lieuts. to be lieuts:—A. C. Bolton, June 24, 1876. J. J. H. R. Eustace; April 21, 1877.

Royal North Down—Ferdinand Aitkins, gent., to be second lieut.

Royal South Down—Capt. G. F. Grant is granted the hon. rank of major.

Fermanagh Sub-Lieut. R. Edie to be lieut.; Jan. 10, 1877,

Kilkenny—Maj. and Hon. Lieut.-Col. P. H. Hunt resigns his commission; also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement.

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Roscommon—Edward R. King-Harman, Esq., late 60th Rifles, to be hon. col. of the regiment.

North Tipperary—The services of Major J. G. J. Sadleir, are dispensed with.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Middlesex—Capt. F. M. Kenyon-Stow, 5th Dragoon Guards, to be adjut.; Aug. 1, 1878.

Oxfordshire—Major E. Ruck-Keene to be lieut.-col.

West Somerset—The undermentioned gents. to be second lieuts. (super.):—W. F. H. Alleyne, late Lieut. 12th Hussars. John Fred. Jeune.

Worcester — The undermentioned Sub-Lieuts to be lieuts.:—R. T. Smith; Aug. 1, 1874, J, S. Gibbons; Jan. 19, 1876. Second Lieut. R. G. L. Windsor, to be lieut.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Aug 13.

1st Edinburgh Artillery—Capt. and Adjut. M. J. Vibart is placed on retired pay, and to have the hon. rank of major, with permission to wear the uniform of the corps.

3rd Administrative Brigade Lancashire Artillery—Capt. Chas. A. Empson, Royal Artillery, to be adjut., vice Evans, whose period of service as Adjutant has expired: July 26, 1878.

4th Administrative Brigade Lancashire Artillery—Major Thomas Mounsey to be lieut.-col.

1st London Artillery — Sub-Lieut. C. H. Clarke to be lieut.; Sept. 13, 1878,

3rd Middlesex Artillery—Lieut. C. C. du Pré to be capt.

1st Administrative Brigade Monmouthshire Artillery—Major Wm. Stallard to be lieut.-col.

1st Northumberland Artillery—S. Kewney, gent., to be lieut.

2nd Orkney Artillery — Sub-Lieut. R. Sinclair to be lieut.; April 22, 1874.

1st Shropshire Artillery—Lieut. F. C. Marshall to be capt.

4th East Riding of Yorkshire Artillery—Herbert Ferth, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

1st Lanarkshire Engineers — Sub-Lieut. William G. Henderson resigns his commission.

2nd Tower Hamlets Engineers —Sub.-Lieut. J. Davis resigns his commission.

9th Aberdeenshire Rifles—Lieut. W. Stewart to be capt.

13th Aberdeenshire Rifles—R. Cruikshant, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Berkshire Rifles—Lieut. E. T. Wells resigns his commission.

2nd Buckinghamshire Rifles—H. T. Anstruther, gent., to be second lieut.

4th Durham Rifles—G. Davison, gent., to be second lieut.

8th Glamorganshire Rifles — Lieut. G H. White to be capt. Chas. M. Jones, gent., to be lieut. J. H. Jenkins, gent., to be second lieut. E. T. Evans, gent,, to be second lieut. (super.)

10th Glamorganshire Rifles — Lieut. J. Gaskell to be capt.

2nd Gloucestershire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. L. H. Solly to be capt. Sub-Lieut, G. J. Holloway to be lieut.; Aug. 2, 1876.

7th Isle of Wight Rifles—Sub-Lieut. R. Barrow to be lieut.; Jan. 20, 1877.

7th Lancashire Rifles—Lieut. J. Ballard, from the 2nd Lancashire Rifle Volunteer Corps, to be capt.

8th Lancashire Rifles — Sub-Lieut. H. Whitehead to be lieut.; Feb. 10, 1877. Sub-Lieut. J. Wild, jun., to be lieut.; Feb. 14, 1877.

10th Lancashire Rifles—Lieut.-Col. David Ainsworth resigns his commission. Hon. Chap. the Rev. S. Phillips resigns his commission.

2nd Leicestershire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. C. W. Parker to be lieut.; May 23, 1877.

4th Leicestershire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. H. W. Plant to be lieut.; March 29, 1876.

6th Leicestershire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. William W. Goode to be lieut.; May 23, 1877.

8th Leicestershire Rifles—Sec. Lieut, George H. Gibson to be lieut.

10th Leicestershire Rifles —

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Second Lieut. Sam Davis to be lieut.

4th Lincolnshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. H. Harwood to be lieut.; July 5, 1876.

19th Middlesex Rifles—Sub-Lieut. G. F. Wallis resigns his commission.

8th Northumberland Rifles—Second Lieut. Henry H. Cook resigns his commission.

1st Radnorshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. James A. W. Stephens resigns his commission.

40th Staffordshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. John Harding to be lieut.; Oct. 11, 1876.

2nd Westmoreland Rifles—T. Wilson, gent., to be lieut. John Bell, jun., gent., to be second lieut.

15th North Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. John Thomas Thompson, to be lieut.; June 14, 1876.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Aug. 20.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Aug. 21, 1878:—

5th Dragoon Guards—Captain John Moore retires from the Service receiving the value of his commission.

6th Dragoon Guards—Sergeant-Maj. Wm. B. Mayes, from the Cavalry Depot Staff, to be riding-master, vice Samuel Walters, deceased.

5th Lancers—Super. Captain Richard F. Morrison to be capt., vice A. B. Harvey, seconded as Adjt. 1st Devon Yeomanry; July 20, 1878.

9th Lancers—Lieut. Bloomfield Gough to be capt., vice W. H. Fife, seconded for service as an Adjt. of Auxiliary Forces; July 17, 1878.

13th Hussars—Capt. and Brevet Lieut. Col. Baker C. Russell, C.B., to be maj., vice Brevet Lieut. Col. H. T. Butler, seconded for service on the Staff; July 15, 1878. Lieut. John K. Spilling to be capt., vice Brevet Col. B. C. Russell, C.B.; July 15, 1878. Lieut. FitzRoy J. W. Farquhar, from the 3rd Royal Surrey Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. K. Spilling, promoted; Aug. 21, 1878.

Grenadier Guards—Major and Brevet Col. Claude Alexander retires on half-pay.

Coldstream Guards—Capt. and Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. the Hon. F. A. Wellesley to remain on the Seconded List for service in a civil situation from April 29, 1878.

1st Foot—Quartermaster-Sergt. Thos. Worrall, from the 60th Foot, to be quartermaster, vice W. E. Tunley, transferred to the Edinburgh Militia.

4th Foot—The seconding for special service at the Cape of Good Hope of Capt. E. R. P. Woodgate, and the restoration to full-pay in succession, on July 24, 1878, of Capt. and Brevet Lieut. Col. H. R. Russell, from half-pay, late 57th Foot, is cancelled. Lieut. Chas. E. Baumann, from the 2nd West India Regiment, to be lieut., vice A. S. Brunskill, who exchanges.

6th Foot—Lieut. Jas. Lewes to be capt., vice Robt. Stratford, deceased; June 13, 1878.

7th Foot—Captain and Brevet Major Robt. W. Sparks to be major, vice H. Plummer, retired on a pension; Aug. 7, 1878. Lieut. Gardner F. Guyon to be capt., vice Brevet Major Sparks; Aug. 7, 1878. Capt. Arthur John Harrison retires on a pension.

8th Foot—Lieut. John Douglas M. Williams, from the Royal Bucks Militia, to be second lieut., vice G. B. Unwin, transferred to the 13th Foot.

9th Foot—Lieut. Henry James Shuckburgh to be adjt., vice Lieut. G. M. Seaton, deceased; Jan. 13, 1878.

10th Foot—The seconding for special service at the Cape of Good Hope of Capt. R. G. Southey, and the restoration to full-pay in succession, on July 24, 1878, of Capt. G. S. Byng, from half-pay, late Rifle Brigade, is cancelled. The Christian names of Second Lieut. Rawlinson, appointed on May 1, 1878, are William Cecil Welsh.

12th Foot—Lieut. O. Williams to be capt., vice H. L. Townshend, retired; Aug. 7, 1878. Second

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Lieut. Frank Graham, from the 24th Foot, to be second lieut, in succession to Lieut. M. J. Sawyer, promoted.

13th Foot—Lieut. Henry Wilson Lovett, from the Royal Carnarvon Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. M. E. Waddy, promoted. Lieut. John Wm. H. West, from the West Kent Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. R. C. Otway, promoted.

14th Foot—Lieut. Chas. Alex. Morris, to be capt., vice A. Cook, retired on a pension; May 11, 1878.

15th Foot—Lieut. William St. Lucien Chase has been appointed a Probationer for the Indian Staff Corps; May 31, 1878.

19th Foot—Lieut. William A. Burnett to be capt., vice J. Pyne, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; July 24, 1878.

20th Foot—Lieut. Robert C. Blencowe, from the Royal Sussex Militia, to be second lieut., vice C. A. T. Boultbee, transferred to the 60th Foot.

21st Foot—Lieut. Henry John Meares to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. A. J. O. Pollock, promoted; May 13, 1878.

22nd Foot—Lieut. Wm. Chas F. Molyneux to be capt., vice G. A. Christian, seconded for service as an adj. of Auxiliary Forces; July 4, 1878. Lieut. Henry H. Sealey to be capt., vice D. C. O. Spiller, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; July 24, 1878.

24th Foot—Lieut. Herbert B. Moffat to be capt., vice R. N. Surplice, retired; July 24, 1878.

30th Foot—Capt. Henry Horace Eden retires on a pension.

31st Foot—Lieut. Fredk. Ward to be capt., vice H. W. Bateman, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; July 24, 1878.

32nd Foot—Lieut. Henry Percy Garnett, from 33rd Foot, to be lieut., vice H. R. Saunders, who exchanges.

33rd Foot—Lieut. Herbert R. Saunders, from the 32nd Foot, to be lieut., vice H. P. Garnett, who exchanges.

34th Foot—Capt. Geo. M. Richmond, from the 36th Foot, to be capt., vice A. A. Boggs, who exchanges.

36th Foot—Capt. Arthur Ansell Boggs, from the 34th Foot, to be capt., vice G. M. Richmond, who exchanges.

38th Foot—Lieut. Col. Wm. K. Ellis is placed on half-pay on appointment to the Staff; July 22, 1878.

49th Foot—Lieut. Ralph James Wilbraham, from the 6th Royal Lancashire Militia, vice R. F. M. Johnstone, transferred to the 16th Foot.

54th Foot—Second Lieut. Herbert Sydney G. Hall, from the 41st Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. H. B. Bruce, retired.

58th Foot—Lieut. Augustus W. Morris to be captain, vice E. E. Coote, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; dated July 24, 1878.

59th Foot—Lieut. Wm. Michael C. White, from the West Kent Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. W. Gordon, a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps.

60th Foot—Lieut. Col. Hugh P. Montgomery, having served five years as a Regimental Lieut. Col., is placed on half-pay. Captain Philip J. H. A. Barne retires from the Service, receiving a gratuity. Lieut. Henry E. W. Featherstonhaugh retires from the Service, receiving the value of an Ensigncy. Lieut. Henry L. Farmer to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. W. H. Holbech, who resigns that appointment; July 12, 1878. Paymaster and Hon. Maj. Wm. Fredk. Nixon retires upon half-pay.

62nd Foot—Lieut. Harry Molyneux Carter to be capt., vice W. L. R. Scott, retired on a pension; Aug. 7, 1878. Lieut. Granville H. Loch, from the 2nd Royal Cheshire Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. G. G. Brittain, deceased. Lieut. Geo. W. S. Fryer, from the 1st Warwick Militia, to

be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. R. Hayne, promoted.

70th Foot—Super. Capt. John R. Collins, to be major, vice A. B. Wright, deceased; June 23, 1878. Lieut. Francis F. F. Roupell to be capt., vice H. W. R. de Coëtlogon, retired; Aug. 7, 1878. Lieutenant Augustus W. Munsey retires from the Service receiving a gratuity.

The seconding for special service at the Cape of Good Hope of Capt. C. L. Harvey, and the restoration to full-pay in succession, on July 24, 1878, of Capt. and Brevet Maj. M. W. Hyslop, from half-pay, late 93rd Foot, is cancelled.

73rd Foot—Super. Capt. Howel Gunter to be captain, vice J. L. Hewson, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; July 24, 1878.

76th Foot—Lieut. John B. M. Taylor to be capt., vice Brevet Major W. Franklin, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Aug. 7, 1878.

83rd Foot—Captain and Brevet Maj. Chas. C. Gore to be maj., vice Brevet Lieut. Col. J. Wakefield, retired on half-pay; Aug. 7, 1878. Lieut. Chas. T. Davenport to be capt, vice Brevet Maj. Gore; Aug. 7, 1878.

84th Foot—Lieut. John Lenox Power to be capt., vice F. A. Gore, seconded for service on the Staff; July 15, 1878.

86th Foot—Lieut. Hartwell H. Stuart to be capt., vice W. L. Brockman, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Aug. 7, 1878.

95th Foot—Lieut. Wm. W. Hancock, from the Royal Carmarthen Artillery Militia, to be sec. lieut., in succession to Lieut. L. R. Burnett, promoted.

96th Foot—Captain and Brevet Maj. Robt. J. Maxwell, from half-pay, late 80th Foot to be captain, vice Brevet Maj. E. Boyle, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department.

98th Foot—Capt. Ernest Ehlers McBride retires from the Service, receiving the value of his commission.

106th Foot—Capt. Edward Foot Gilbert, from half-pay, late 49th Foot, to be capt., vice H. M. Compigné, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department. Lieut. Gilbert W. Z. Moss, from the 4th Royal Lancashire Militia, to be second lieut., vice W. S. Wood, transferred to the 77th Foot.

108th Foot—Lieut. Richard M. Greenfield to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. F. E. Apthorp, promoted Jan. 24, 1878.

Rifle Brigade—Major James F. Henley is placed on temporary half-pay, owing to ill-health.

2nd West-India Regiment—Lt. Arthur S. Brunskill, from the 4th Foot, to be lieut., vice C. E. Baumann, who exchanges.

Medical Department.

Surg.-Maj. Wm. Armstrong retires on half-pay. Surg. Stephen Flood, M.B., resigns his commission; June 21, 1878.

Army Pay Department.

The undermentioned Officers, having resigned their commissions as Combatant Officers, to be paymasters, with the hon. rank of capt. in the Army. Dated April 1, 1878, such antedate not to carry back pay:—Capt. Wm. R. Thornhill, from the 19th Foot; Captain Arthur J. Roberts, from the 44th Foot; Captain Fredk. Robertson, from the 10th Foot; Capt. Fredk. N. I. Taylor, from the 10th Foot. The appointment as paymaster, with the hon. rank of capt. in the Army, of Capt. Jas. H. Jackson, from half-pay, late 63rd Foot, is dated April 6, 1878, and not as stated in the Gazette of July 23, 1878.

Half-Pay.

Brevet Major John L. Stewart, from Super. Capt., 18th Hussars, to be major.

Brevet.

Lieut.-Gen. Sir Patrick L. McDougall, K.C.M.G., to have the local rank of gen., whilst holding the appointment of lieut.-gen. on the Staff in command of the forces in the Dominion of Canada.

Paymaster and Hon. Maj. Wm. F. Nixon, 60th Foot, to have the hon. rank of lieut.-col. on retiring on half-pay.

Deputy Assist.-Com. W. Wilson, Bengal Establishment, to have the hon. rank of lieut.; May 24, 1878.

To be maj.-gens.:—Brevet Col. Chas. Sawyer, from Lieut.-Colonel half pay, late 6th Dragoon Guards; Jan. 11, 1870, such antedate not to carry back pay prior to Oct. 1, 1877.

Brevet Col. Edwd. Seager, C.B., from inspecting officer of Auxiliary Cavalry; Jan. 15, 1870, such antedate not to carry back pay prior to Oct. 1, 1877.

Brevet Col. Jas. H. G. Robertson, from Lieut. Col., half-pay, late 100th Foot; May 16, 1870, such antedate not to carry back pay prior to Oct. 1, 1877.

Brevet Col. Gustavus N. K. A. Yonge, from Lieut. Col., retired full-pay, Brigade Depot; Oct. 16, 1877.

Brevet Col. Richard B. Prettejohn, C.B., from Lieut. Col., retired full.pay, 18th Hussars; March 20, 1878.

The undermentioned Officers to have the honorary rank of major upon retiring on a pension:—Capt. A. J. Harrison, 7th Foot. Capt. H. H. Eden, 30th Foot.

To have the honorary rank of deputy surg. gen.:—Surg. Maj. E. G. Ley, M.D., whose retirement on half pay appeared in the Gazette of April 30, 1878: July 22, 1878. Surg. Major W. Armstrong, upon retiring on half pay. Surg. Maj. F. L. G. Gunn, on retirement on half pay; May 22, 1878.

Memoranda.

Major and Brevet Lieut. Col. F. W. Gregory, half pay, late 44th Foot, retires from the service, receiving the value of his commission: Aug. 3, 1878.

Quartermaster and Hon. Capt. T. Metcalfe, half pay, late Rifle Brigade, has been permitted to commute his retired allowance: Aug. 1, 1878.

India Office, Aug. 19.

Her Majesty has been pleased to approve of the following admissions to Her Majesty's Indian Staff Corps made by the Government in India:—

BENGAL STAFF CORPS.

Lieut. L. J. Browne, 54th Foot; Oct. 18, 1876. Lieut. R. Fulton, 1st Battalion 2nd Foot: Jan. 22, 1877. Lieut. E. A. Jones, 70th Foot: Oct. 30, 1879. Lieut. H. G. Ryland, 1st Battalion 11th Foot: Feb. 1, 1877. Lieut. F. D. Welchman, 48th Foot: Feb. 16, 1877.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Aug. 20.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Aug. 21, 1878.

Artillery.

Galway—Francis Rea Lambert, gent., to be lieut.

Northumberland—The undermentioned Sub-Lieutenants to be lieuts.:—F. D. Blake; Nov. 22, 1878. H. Liddell; June 20, 1877.

Infantry.

Royal Berks—Second Lieut. E. Davies to be lieut.

Cambridge—H. P. Smith, gent., to be second lieut.; July 30, 1878.

1st Royal Cheshire—Sub-Lieut. G. H. Hugh, Earl of Rocksavage, resigns his commission.

The Royal Cornwall Rangers, Duke of Cornwall's Own—Sub-Lieut. A. W. Craig to be lieut.; Nov. 22, 1876.

Dorset—Sub-Lieut. the Hon. A. A. C. Keppel to be lieut.; April 7, 1877.

Royal South Gloucester—Sub-Lieut. J. S. Cave-Browne-Cave to be lieut.; June 26, 1877.

West Kent—The appointment of Capt. C. M. Churchill, 50th Foot, as adjut., in succession to W. H. Barker, retired from the Service, notified in the London Gazette of July 2, 1878, to bear date Feb. 20, 1878, instead of June 21, 1878.

5th Royal Lancashire—Sub-Lieut. H. B. S. C. Salomonson to be lieut.; June 20, 1877. Second Lieut. C. R. Pigg to be lieut.

Royal North Lincoln—Capt. C. G. Helme, 10th Foot, to be adjut., in succession to E. A. Berger, promoted Major in the 10th Foot; Aug. 12, 1878.

2nd or East Norfolk—Capt. E. J. Howes resigns his commission.

Shropshire—Lieut. F. S. Pardoe to be capt.

The (King's Own) 2nd Stafford—William A. Briscoe, gent., to be second lieut.

The King's Own Royal Tower Hamlets—Wm. L. B. Handyside, gent., to be second lieut.

East York—Sub-Lieut. J. B. W. Wilson to be lieut.; June 8, 1877.

5th West York—Sub-Lieut. A. Smith to be lieut.; Aug. 26, 1876. Second Lieut. R. B, Firman to be lieut.

Scottish Borderers — Capt. F. MacKenzie Salmond, 21st Foot, to be adjut., vice H. J. Hill, placed upon a retirement allowance; Aug. 12, 1878.

Wexford—The undermentioned Lieuts. to be Capts.:—W. Redmond. The Hon. Arthur Henry Richmond.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Leicestershire—Lieut. Harry L. Powys-Keck resigns his commission.

Nottinghamshire (South Nottinghamshire)—Capt. William H. Dawson, 6th Dragoons, to be adjut., in succession to J. C. Douglas, whose period of service in that appointment has expired; Aug. 12, 1878.

Pembroke—T. E. Bowen, gent., to be second lieut.

Worcestershire—Lieut. S. G. T. Scobell, from the North Somerset Yeomanry Cavalry, to be lieut.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Aug. 20.

Where not otherwise specified these commissions bear date Aug. 21, 1878.

1st Fifeshire Light Horse—J. H. Rigg, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

2nd Caithness-shire—Capt. Jas. McKidd resigns his commission, also is permitted to retain his rank, and to wear the uniform of the corps on his retirement.

3rd Cumberland Artillery—Second Lieut. T. S. Ritson to be lieut.

1st Kent Artillery—Sub-Lieut. Super. Wm. J. Lake resigns his commission.

19th Lancashire Artillery—I Marsden, gent., to be second lieut.

26th Lancashire Artillery—W. L. Lawson, gent., to be lieut. D. Jones, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd Lincolnshire Artillery—F. C. Renshaw, gent., to be second lieut.

4th Orkney Artillery — Sub-Lieut. J. Grant to be lieut.; May 20, 1876.

3rd North Riding of Yorkshire Artillery — Sub-Lieut. John H. Moody to be lieut.; June 7, 1876.

1st Lancashire Engineers — Lieut. N. J. Lidstone to be capt.

1st London Engineers—Sub-Lieut. A. L. Hall resigns his commission.

7th Ayrshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. John Kelso to be lieut.; April 18, 1877.

4th Berwickshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. T. P. Purves to be lieut.: Feb. 19, 1876.

19th Cornwall Rifles—Capt. N. Male resigns his commission.

6th Cumberland Rifles—E. J. Don Bavand, gent., to be act.-surg.

1st Dorsetshire Rifles—Lieut. Samuel G. Ewen resigns his commission.

11th Durham Rifles—Lieut. R. F. Gibson to be capt.

19th Hampshire Rifles—Capt. C. C. Creeke resigns his commission, also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the corps on his retirement.

29th Lanarkshire Rifles—Lieut. T. Jackson resigns his commission, also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the corps on his retirement.

24th Lancashire Rifles—Thos. Feilden, Esq., to be capt.

56th Lancashire Rifles—Wm. Dixon, gent., to be second lieut.

3rd London Rifles—W. Crook, gent., to be second lieut.

16th Middlesex Rifles—Sub-Lieut. J. W. Dixon to be lieut.; March 3, 1877.

1st Perthshire Rifles — Sub-Lieut. J. Montgomerie to be lieut.: Jan. 19, 1876.

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4th Somersetshire Rifles—Lieut. R. Brice resigns his commission.

9th Somerset Rifles—Chas. H. Tripp, gent., to be second lieut.

26th Somersetshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. C. Major resigns his commission.

31st Staffordshire Rifles—Sec. Lieut. C. H. Shovell resigns his commission.

7th Surrey Rifles—Captain L. Shuter resigns his commission.

1st Sussex Rifles—Sub-Lieut. G. H. Catt to be Lieut.: Feb. 21, 1877. Sub-Lieut. W. A. Bailey to be lieut.: Feb. 21, 1877. Sub-Lieut. H. J. R. Livesay to be lieut.: Feb. 21, 1877.

3rd Tower Hamlets Rifles—S. H. C. Stedman, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

7th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Lieut. E. M. Baines to be capt.

29th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Capt. John Wilson, jun., resigns his commission. Lieut. C. Fox to be capt.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Aug. 23.

Where not otherwise specified these commissions bear date Aug. 24, 1878.

Royal Engineers—Capt. H. S. Clive to be major, vice George M. Collings, who retires upon temporary half-pay: Aug. 24, 1878. Lieut. Geo. R. Walker, upon the Super. list, to be capt.: Aug 24, 1878. Lieut. R. C. T. Hildyard, upon the Super. list, to be capt.: Aug. 24, 1878. Lieut. Duncan MacNeil Campbell to be captain, vice H. S. Clive; Aug. 24, 1878.

Brevet.

Lieut. Col. Wm. C. Phillpotts, Royal Engineers, having completed the qualifying service in the rank of Lieut.-Col., to be col.: Aug. 2, 1878.

Memorandum.

Capt. George R. Walker, Royal Engineers, to have the local rank of major whilst engaged as a Professor at the Royal Canadian College: Aug. 24, 1874.

India Office, Aug. 21.

Her Majesty has been pleased to approve of the removal from the list of the Army of the name of the undermentioned officer:—

Lieut. Bradford Smith, of the Bengal Staff Corps: Jan. 2, 1878.

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TRAVELS IN PERSIA.

By Commander G. Nelson Pomeroy Mason, late I.N.

(Edited by C. R. Low, I.N., F.R.G.S.)

INTRODUCTION.

The Editor and annotator of these "Travels," in introducing to the reader the Author, an officer of the late Indian Navy, excuses himself from the charge of presumption, by the statement that he undertook the rôle, only at the request of Commander Mason, who was of opinion that a literary experience in the columns of this Magazine, extending over eleven years, might enable me better to cater for its readers. In entertaining this opinion, Commander Mason displayed a modesty which, I fear, many may say, after perusing the following pages, is not possessed by his brother officer in accepting the Editorial function; but however, this may be, it is not probable that on any other conditions these Notes of Travel, jotted down from day to day, would have been presented to the public.

It has been the fashion from remote times for travellers by sea to keep Diaries and Journals, but the practice has not been equally common among those who journey by land. On this point Lord Bacon, "the wisest, greatest, meanest of mankind," says: "It is a strange thing that in sea voyages where there is nothing to be seen but sky and sea, men should make diaries, but in land travel wherein so much is to be observed, for the most part they omit, as if chance were fitter to be registered than observation; let diaries therefore be brought in use." And now to my duty, which is, first to introduce the reader to the Author, and then, to stand on one side and let him speak for himself.

Commander Mason, then, has a peculiar claim to the sympathy of naval men, and indeed, of all Englishmen, for he is a grand-nephew of Lord Nelson, his grandmother being the youngest sister of that mightiest of seamen. He himself served with distinction on board the Honourable Company's steam frigate 'Zenobia,' Commander J. Sedley, in the second Burmese War, where he commanded a battery of two 68-pounders which defended Martaban from the attacks of the enemy. With infinite trouble and hard work these heavy guns were dragged to the summit of a hill commanding the town, by the seamen of that ship, assisted by elephants, and for several days he and his detachment were harassed night and day by the Burmese. In January, 1853, when General Steel made his march across country to Tonghoo, Lieutenant Fraser, I.N. commanding the Honourable Company's steamer 'Medusa,' with Acting Lieutenant Mason as second in command, proceeded up country to co-operate with a handful of blue-jackets. Though he was compelled to return, few more daring attempts have been made, and that the entire party was not annihilated was due to the sagacity and resource of that dashing officer and his second in command. The return march was made under continual attacks by the enemy, and Mr. Mason rejoined his ship shoeless and utterly exhausted. Lieutenant Fraser's despatch was never published, and between those two stools, the military and naval authorities, nothing was ever known of this enterprise.

Lieutenant Mason served with credit throughout the Persian War, commanded the 'Lady Falkland,' a despatch vessel, and held the post of Harbour Master and General Transport Agent at Bushire. What those duties were, and how he fulfilled them, is best expressed in the following communication from Commodore James Rennie, C.B., I.N.,

commanding the naval portion of the Expedition:— "In simply certifying that Lieutenant Mason performed both duties, I should be doing this officer very great injustice did I not also testify to the satisfactory manner in which he (almost unaided) performed the duties of his office, which were of the most harrassing nature, and required incessant application and untiring energy to accomplish. Lieutenant Mason never flagged in his personal exertions, and to his indomitable perseverance and unremitting attention is to be ascribed the success which attended the control over a fleet of vessels at times numbering not less than fifty-five large transports, as it was no less by his excellent arrangements that the enormous supplies for the force at Bushire were landed and embarked at that almost open roadstead without accident in an incredibly short time. Lieutenant Mason at no time had any assistance beyond the assistant agents afloat, and two office writers with one gunner on shore."

Lieutenant Mason suffered severely from fever induced by hard work and exposure to the sun, the effects of which he will carry to the grave, and at length, when serving as Senior Lieutenant of the Honourable Company's steam frigate 'Zenobia,' was compelled to take sick leave. He selected the interior of Persia as the scene of his well-earned holiday, though only hardships and a trying climate awaited him; and, in 1859 quitted Bushire, amidst the good wishes of his friends and brother officers, many of whom, including the late Commodore Griffith Jenkins, C.B., I.N., commanding the Indian Naval Squadron, accompanied him a distance of some miles, and gave him a parting cheer as he started on his travels, which extended over portions of the years 1859-60-61. Having filled the part of Chorus in a Greek play, we will now make our bow, and leave our author to speak for himself, merely observing that his descriptions and observations may be relied upon, as he is no sciolist or superficial traveller, but a trained surveyor and accurate observer, and sufficiently conversant with Arabic, Persian, and Hindostanee to prevent the possibility of his being at the mercy of any lying servant or guide. Moreover, he made it a practice during his journeys to have the name of every town and village written down, with other information in Persian, characters, and the series of highly finished drawings made on the spot during his wanderings in Persia and Kurdistan, prove him to be the possessor of the artistic faculty in no mean degree. (C. R. L.)

Chapter I.—Bushire to Shiraz.

A long-continued career of duty, at times not of the easiest or most healthy description, had so weakened my constitution, bodily and mental, as to oblige me to seek for immediate relief in change of scene and entire relaxation from toils of duty. A year's leave was granted me by the medical authorities, and as I fancied novelty of scene would facilitate my recovery, and a long-wished for opportunity of seeing the interior of Persia now presented itself, I solicited and obtained permission to proceed to Baghdad viâ Teheran. Little preparation was required. My goods and chattels, except a few necessaries, were lodged in the house of an Armenian, and I took with me two servants, both of whom understood Hindostanee, the language with which I was most familiar. Mundoo, a sort of Jack-of-all-trades, undertook charge of the

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ménage, and the other, Abdullah, acted as cook and gorah-wallah, my horses being a good stout Yaboo, and a riding-horse.

On Friday, February 25th, 1859, I started from Bushire. A good strong south-easter was blowing at the time, and the high tide in consequence had covered the sandy plain in front of the town. A calvacade of our officers rode out to witness my departure, foremost amongst whom was the Commodore of the Squadron. The high wind proved too great an obstacle to allow of conversation, so we soon separated, they giving me three hearty cheers on returning to Bushire, and I, after casting a longing look at even the dreary walls of that miserable, dirty town, braced up my nerves to meet what I knew was in anticipation—the dreary sea of Mashila,* extending between Bushire and Chagudduck. However, bad though it proved, for miles presenting the appearance of a lake, on whose surface the wind was raising billows in miniature, I at last passed over it in safety, and soon after dark reached "Red Oven Lodge," the rude but comfortable country abode of the Assistant Political Resident, Captain Disbrowe, of the 1st Bombay Fusiliers, who, preferring this oasis with its verdant surroundings and health-giving air to the restricted environs of Bushire, here keeps his greyhounds and horses, with which he has excellent sport, hunting the antelope, fox, or hare, when inclination leads, or duty permits, him; and at this season it is certainly a pleasant spot. Malcolm describes the mode peculiar to the country of hawking and hunting the antelope, the accuracy of which will be recognized by those who have served in the Gulf: "The huntsmen proceed to a large plain, or rather desert, near the sea-side: they have hawks and greyhounds; the former carried in the usual manner on the hand of the huntsman, the latter led in a leash by a horseman, generally the same who carries the hawk. When the antelope is seen, they endeavour to get as near as possible; but the animal, the moment it observes them, goes off at a rate that seems swifter than the wind; the horsemen are instantly at full speed, having slipped the dogs. If it is a single deer, they at the time fly the hawks; but if a herd, they wait till the dogs have fixed on a particular antelope. The hawks, skimming along near the ground, soon reach the deer, at whose head they pounce in succession, and sometimes with a violence that knocks it over. At all events, they confuse the animal so much as to stop its speed in such a degree that the dogs can come up; and in an instant men, horses, dogs, and hawks surround the unfortunate deer, against which their united efforts have been combined. The part of the chase that surprised me most was the extraordinary combination of the hawks and the dogs, which throughout seemed to look to each other for aid. This, I was

* This Mashila extends a distance of nearly fifteen miles, and connects the promontory on which Bushire is situated with the mainland. At times it is dry, but generally this extensive tract of salt marsh is a shallow lake.

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told, was the result of long and skilful training. The antelope is supposed to be the fleetest quadruped on earth, and the rapidity of the first burst of the chase I have described is astonishing. The run seldom exceeds three or four miles, and often is not half so much. A fawn is an easy victory; the doe often runs a good chase, and the buck is seldom taken. The Arabs are, indeed, afraid to fly their hawks at the latter, as these fine birds, in pouncing, frequently impale themselves on its sharp horns. The hawks used in this sport are of a species that I have never seen in any other country. This breed, which is called "cherkh," is not large, but of great beauty and symmetry. Another mode of running down the antelope is practised here, and still more in the interior of Persia. Persons of the highest rank lead their own greyhounds in a long silken leash, which passes through the collar, and is ready to slip the moment the huntsman chooses. The well-trained dog goes alongside the horse, and keeps clear of him when at full speed, and in all kinds of country. When a herd of antelopes is seen, a consultation is held, and the most experienced determine the point towards which they are to be driven. The field then disperse, and while some drive the herd in the desired direction, those with the dogs take their post on the same line, at the distance of about a mile from each other; one of the worst dogs is then slipped at the herd, and from the moment he singles out an antelope the whole body are in motion. The object of the horsemen who have greyhounds is to intercept its course, and to slip fresh dogs, in succession, at the fatigued animal. In rare instances the second dog kills. It is generally the third or fourth; and even these, when the deer is strong, and the ground favourable, often fail. In hawking, the prey is the hubara, a fine species of bustard, which is found on almost bare plains, where it has no shelter but a small shrub called "geetuck." Two kinds of hawk are necessary for this sport, the first, the "cherkh," attacks the hubara on the ground but will not follow them on the wing, for which the "bhyree," a hawk well known in India, is trained. As we rode along in an extended line," says Malcolm, describing a day's hawking, "the men who carried the cherkhs every now and then unhooded and held them up, that they might look over the plain. The first hubara we found afforded us a proof of the astonishing quickness of sight of one of the hawks; he fluttered to be loose, and the man who held him gave a whoop, as he threw him off his hand, and set off at full speed. We all did the same. At first we only saw one hawk skimming over the plain, but soon perceived, at a distance of more than a mile, the beautiful speckled hubara, with his head erect, and wings outspread, running forward to meet his adversary. The cherkh made several unsuccessful pounces, which were either evaded or repelled by the beak or wings of the hubara, which at last found an opportunity of rising, when a bhyree was instantly

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flown, and the whole party were again at full gallop. We had a flight of more than a mile, when the hubara alighted, and was killed by another cherkh, who attacked him on the ground. This bird weighed ten pounds. We killed several others, but were not always successful, having seen our hawks twice completely beaten during the two days we followed this fine sport."

The climate here is delightful, the whole plain covered with wild flowers, backed with a high range of hills to the east, whose barren sides the setting sun daily floods with the most beautiful shades of colouring, while the date trees enliven the landscape and give welcomé repose to the traveller. One is filled with wonder on learning that with two or three months of hot weather all this beauty fades, and gives place to a barren desert, parched with the sun and evolving a heat so fervid as to give some reason for the quaint name Captain Disbrowe has bestowed on his abode, "Red Oven Lodge."

It was not until March 9 that we were fairly under way for Shiraz. We left at eleven a.m. for Borazgoon, the day pleasant with a refreshing breeze from the southward. After passing Ahmedee, we met a cavalcade—having in keeping the corpse of a Persian of some consideration, to judge by the coffin, which was covered with felt—proceeding to Bushire, with a mounted guard of an officer and three sowars. The country is very lovely this time of the year, in some places being one mass of yellow and green. Passed the battle-ground of Khooshâb at half-past two p.m., about 3½ farsangs* from Chahgudduck, and the fort and village of Khooshâb about a mile or two further on. At a distance, the cattle grazing on a fine bit of meadow in front of the fort, gave it the appearance of a small English village, without the church, but on approaching it the illusion was dispelled, for Khooshâb is a miserable mud village, of the most insignificant description. Drawing near Borazjoon, a good plantation of date trees is passed, and turning down a lane the town is seen, as usual looking very seductive, the sun shining on the towers and white buildings, giving it an imposing and pleasing appearance, to which it has no manner of right. The walls and towers are in a ruinous state, and the place dirty and neglected in the last degree. After some difficulty we were permitted to take up our camp in a court-yard, given by the sheikh, a dilapidated building, whose precincts were in a state of indescribable filth. The sheikh sent his *salaam*, regretting he could not come to see me, as he was entertaining some friends just arrived from Teheran. The mules† and horses fed, I looked about

* Farsang, or Farsakh, is the Arabic equivalent of "parasang" (Greek *parasaggees*) which readers of Xenophon will remember. A parasang is an ancient Persian measure, reckoned by Herodotus at thirty stadia or three and three quarters English miles, and according to others, at sixty stadia. It is generally assumed to be three and a half miles.

† The baggage animals in Persia are mules, and as Malcolm says, no country can boast of finer animals of this description. They carry heavy burdens and travel

for a place for myself which I got over the stable, confined and full of small windows, affording sufficient ventilation, as I found to my cost on awakening in the night with a stiff neck. This place of repose was about 10 feet by 5, its walls adorned with elaborate drawings by some follower of art, representing a Persian horseman in every variety of aggressive and daring equitation. Supping in the stable between my two horses on two or three slices of fried ham and rusk, washed down by eau-de-vie, I retired early, and passed rather a cold and restless night. Rising betimes, on closer inspection, I found the place in a more wretched state than I had imagined last night—the walls narrow and fallen in in many places, the fort surrounded by a deep and narrow dry ditch, and the housetops of the town green with rank grass. I found the angle of top of the highest peak about 4′ 30″ distance, say 5½ or 6 miles.

It was with a sense of relief that I quitted Borazjoon at seven a.m. on the 11th March, and had hardly cleared the town when I fell in with a Persian, by name Mirza* Abbas Khan, travelling from Bushire to Shiraz, with four attendants. He had been despatched to bestow a dress of honour (Khillut) on the Deria Begee (Lord of the Sea) as the Governor of Bushire is styled, and appears to have been a Collector of Revenue.

Whilst I was at Borazjoon, three sowars arrived with a requisition from the Begee for 10,000 krans, to which the sheikh replied that he would pay it when he could raise the money; and immediately he was pestered by the poor villagers, who knew from former experience what was in store, pleading that here a camel had been stolen, there a field of wheat or barley had gone bad, a donkey was dead, sheep had strayed, and could not be found or recovered, and any excuse to save the extortionate demand they knew well was hanging over their heads.

My friend, Mirza Abbas Khan, was civil enough and begged me to keep him company on the road, and was very talkative. After leaving Chahgudduck the road passes over an undulating and fertile plain, dotted with groves of date trees, with an occasional village, but as you approach the range of mountains at the foot of which Daliki is situated the road becomes rough and broken. A large kafilah was waiting outside Borazjoon, which we passed as it proceeded on to Bushire. In many places the road is seamed with water courses and strewn with boulders; the red poppy crops up here and there, and the grass which lines the road at this time of the year affords a feast to the mules of which they take advantage whenever opportunity offers, in fact they appear at this season to depend for their sustenance almost entirely on the

great distances at a rate of more than four miles an hour. They are harnessed in strings, the muleteer in charge being called "khater-bashee," master of the mules, and "charvadar."

* The word "Mirza" when used as a prefix, signifies "secretary," or civilian, but when it follows a name, designates a prince.

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natural herbage which follows the rains. Regarding these much abused mules, I could scarcely have conceived, unless I had been an eye-witness to the fact, the wonderful way in which they proceed on the rough mountain paths, which in many places are so bad as to oblige a horseman to dismount. Their instinct is great, and the willing way in which they do their work is pleasant to witness, while their hardihood equals their docility. One of our mules in particular, which carries my trunks, I have contracted quite a regard for. The charvadah says he cost thirty tomans. Male and female appear equally excellent, and there appears to be no trouble in their being together in the kafilah. My Persian friend, Mirza Abbas Khan, who had visited the 'Zenobia,' and appeared a very intelligent person, was attended by four servants, —two horsemen, his caliun-bearer, ghoolam with matchlock, private servant, on mule, with bags, and cook (a Seedy) on a small donkey, which poor little brute can hardly scramble up the rough places, and is continually coming to grief. The caliun-bearer carries two cases, sanduk i caliun (box for pipe), a small hanging stove for fire, (called mulkah) slung on left side of saddle, and leather bottle for water (called matharrah) on the other.

About two and a-half miles from Daliki, which is nearly 60 miles from Bushire, is a guard-house, and three-fourths of a mile farther on, the tomb of a peer (or saint), a small wretched place in charge of an attendant, where my friend dismounted for a few minutes to say minaz (prayers) and I pushed on to the caravanserai, which I found large and tolerably clean. Here it may be mentioned that caravanserais in Persia consist of rows of arched rooms extending round an open court in the form of a hollow square. In the cities they are of burnt bricks, and in villages, usually of unburnt bricks, or mud moulded into the shape of bricks and dried in the sun. They are used for the various purposes of storing merchandize, lodging travellers and caravans, the residence and depôts of merchants and the shops of mechanics. The apartments devoted to travellers consist of simple naked stalls, differing, if at all, from those of the beasts of burden, only by having a brick or elevated earth floor. Being stared at a good deal, I took the precaution of hanging up a tarpaulin. Mirza Abbas Khan kindly sent me some saiad and fish. Found here a Persian officer proceeding to Shiraz with five colts on spec.

Daliki is an inconsiderable place lying at the foot of the first chain of hills, and only remarkable for the sulphurous streams and springs of naphtha in the neighbourhood. It is said by the natives to be the hottest place in the world, but I should be inclined to give the palm to Bassadore, in the island of Kishm, in July and August. The dates here are large and fine, and are considered the best in Persia, and are watered from the naphtha springs. All caravans for Shiraz start from Daliki, and as the entrance to the dreaded passes begin here, animals are well looked

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to, their equipment adjusted, loads balanced and arranged, and I fear much bad language exchanged between master and men. European travellers who stop at Daliki are always visited by those who are really sick, or believe themselves so, for immediate remedy and cure, such as a Frank is always supposed to have the power of effecting. Many kind-hearted people have done their best or their worst to meet the desires of these interesting patients, but I threw off all disguise latterly and refused to have anything to do with meddling with the province of the hukkeem, or village medical man, who often mixes bowls of physic holding a quart or more for those who are *in extremis*, and whose sole remedy for a broken limb often lies in the application of "moomiyai," a kind of petroleum, of which there are whole pits at Daliki, strong smelling, and pouring their vile refuse into the fine date groves which form the most pleasing feature of the place. The best "moomiyai," I believe, is procured from the lofty hill of Hormoof, known to seamen and native pilots of Bushire as Halilah Hill, which looms over the coast of Dalhistan, and is a land mark for thirty or forty miles south of Bushire; it is said coal is also found in this famous hill, and if so it would be most useful to the steamers that now frequent Persian waters.

Mirza Abbas Khan in the evening invited me to, apparently, the only sweet smelling pool in the village; and here we smoked chibouqes or nargileehs, and talked of his interesting family in Shiraz, and of the probable fulness of the Daliki river from the late rains which as we had to ford it *en route* to-morrow, appeared to tell on his nerves. Persians are very fond of a stream of water, and will sit beside a mere water course for hours enjoying their pipes.

We left Daliki at sunrise on the 13th March, in company with Mirza Abbas Khan; the road commences to ascend almost immediately after leaving the caravanserai, winding round the foot of the hills. About a mile and a-half from it you enter a gorge in the hills, and now commences the rough and uneven mountain paths, hardly to be called so, for scarcely a track exists in many places. Winding along the foot of the hills, full of rough boulders, and, in some places, huge pieces of rock, it is still however possible to ride, but there is not sufficient room to walk two abreast. A little verdure is seen at this time of the year, but for the most part the hills have a barren look and sameness of colour, throughout a dull grey brown, but with a few small stunted shrubs of the "lote" (an Indian tree) and a bush in some places resembling a wild gooseberry. We passed a large party of "Eels"* travelling up

* These Eels, or Eelyâts are nomads, whose food is principally derived from their flocks, with cheese, curds, and hard black bread made from barley and rye. (See Malcolm's "Sketches in Persia," p. 131). Numbers of these eelyâts perished during the great famine.

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towards Khisht, with all their household gods—donkeys, cattle, women and children.

After an hour and a-half's ride we came in sight of the Daliki river, a stream about forty or fifty yards wide, which has a muddy appearance, and as it foams round the hills, looks imposing and appeared to tell rather on the nerves of my Persian companion, who talked constantly about its being very full. After travelling along a pebbly bank by its side, the rocks approached so close as to leave no room for road, so we had to make a detour, scrambling up a rough rugged path on foot for a mile or more and at last came in sight of the ford,* presenting a busy scene with two or three caravans crossing from either side, and groups of villagers who make it almost a trade in the winter to assist travellers over the ford. I believe they were men from Khisht (Bockee tribe). I paid a rupee for the services of those who helped me over with my four or five mules, which good and willing creatures appeared to take to the water with their usual accommodating spirit and followed in a string of thirty or forty together. The river is too deep at this time of year for them to cross without wetting their burdens; it was three and a-half to four feet, or more perhaps in some places, but not dangerous, which it is sometimes after heavy rains, when it is unfordable for days together. As the Persians seemed unwilling to cross, I took the ford and got over pretty dry, when they followed, and, after proceeding round the foot of hills about one and a-half or two miles, commenced to ascend the wild pass of Kothal Malu, which is about two miles in extent, and too steep in most places to perform comfortably on horseback, but not dangerous, though the sun was terribly hot. My Persian friend had to take to his horse, but a Persian non-commissioned officer, a good sort of fellow, still continued to drag his way up on foot with me, though he greatly complained of the heat. We at last surmounted it, and stood on the level land looking down on the Khist valley, which is green with young barley at this season. We were now behind the bluff cliff seen from Bushire at the back of Borazjoon, and I should say nearly on a level with it. We descended to the valley, and about three miles further came to the caravanserai and small village of Koonar Tukteh, with date trees and small fort behind, which I hear is only occupied in the date season. The caravanserai is rather roomy and clean, the dalander (porter) a civil old man, but the people were inquisitive and anxious for medicine.

On Sunday, March 14th, we left Koonar Tukteh at sunrise and continued our march through the valley of Khisht for about one and a-half miles; the road then began to get rough and full of stones and continued so the whole way to Kamaridj. For a part of the way it winds along the banks of the Shahpoor river;

* Sir F. Goldsmid mentions in his "Telegraph and Travel," that a bridge has since been built over the Daliki river.

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in one part the road is execrable and an attempt has been made to repair it where the rocks trench on the Shahpoor river, but it is a rough bit of workmanship, huge slabs of stone irregularly laid down and rough masses of rock. The water-courses in the road are so frequent as to make walking very fatiguing, and the hot sun, together with the action of using stepping stones, gave rather severe exercise. I observed remains of marine formation here, and picked up a petrified cockleshell (bivalve) about two and a-half miles on the Koonar Tukteh side of Kothal Kamaridj. Koon-i-Gharbat is the name of the vile piece of road I have just described, where we were delayed by a cavalcade of donkeys, the road by the Shahpoor river being too narrow to allow us to pass each other. This river has a strong current now, and rushing over masses of rock in its bed and being tolerably clear, looks picturesque together with the hills surrounding it, but they are barren enough and of the wildest kind. I observed in some places that they appeared as if they had regular bastions and fortified walls. It is scarcely possible to imagine wilder scenery than is here presented, and in a storm it must be perfectly grand.

The road is tolerably good for about two and a-half miles after leaving Koon-i-Gharbat, but then commences to diverge into a narrow defile at the foot of the Kothal Kamaridj, a huge narrow ravine, on the left-hand side of which winds the steep ascent of the pass. It is a heavy pull, but not all perpendicular as the path gets tolerably level here and there. Travellers have asserted that it is unsafe in some parts, but a man must be very drunk indeed to whom it would prove so, though it is hard work for the poor mules. I cannot say much for the scenery in these parts, as it is too confined with masses of hills running into each other, and there is a great sameness of form and colour (a grey drab) in the mountains. At the foot of the pass, where the road is exceedingly rough and narrow, necessitating a scramble over masses of rock, at a place called Darb-i-Now—an old man, with two assistants, was boring and blasting the rocks for a path, as suwab (religious merit), or pretending to do so. A pretty tolerable stream of water, rather bitter in flavour, was gushing down here, and higher up, a small cascade was formed. Shortly after passing the guard-house, we came on a paved way over the mountain stream for a short distance, and at the bottom of this I saw two dead vultures. A mile further the pass ends, and turning down you come in sight of the Kamaridj plain, which, in March, is covered with young barley, a delightfully green oasis for the eye to rest on after the glare of the rocks.*

* Distance from Caravanserai of Koonar to Shahpoor River		2½	miles.
"	Shahpoor River to Koon-i-Gharbat	1	"
"	Koon-i-Gharbat to foot of Kamaridj	2½	"
"	Pass of Kamaridj to Guard house	1½	"
"	Guard house to Kamaridj village	2	"
	Total	11½	miles.

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The sun was as hot as ever on this plain, and we were glad to put up in a small house belonging to friends of our charvadar. The people were very civil, and not near so inquisitive as the Koonar Tukteh people, and were contented with moderate remuneration for their lodging. I slept in a small dirty closet, about 8 feet by 6, annoyed all night by cats, which abound in this part of Fars, but little or no vermin, and at three a.m. was aroused by the caravan proceeding, when we recommenced our onward way, whilst it was yet dark.

About three miles from Kamaridj the road narrows between two masses of rock, until it hardly leaves room for two mules abreast, and, amongst masses of stone and running streams of water, we commenced to stumble our way, whilst it was yet dark, through the Tung-i-Toorkun, a narrow defile, I should think, five miles or more in length altogether. I was much alarmed for my little Arab, for the defile undulates, and the places where it descends, are worse than the ascents, and in some spots it is entirely choked up with rocks and huge pieces of stone. A Persian officer, who was in our kafilah, had brought five young colts from Bushire, but how these poor little brutes got through the Tung-i-Toorkun, I cannot conceive. Day had broken before we cleared this dreadful piece of way, and the rude scenery, gloomy as it was, seemed quite a relief after the dark mass of rocks we had been scrambling over for the last two hours.*

* The late Colonel Patrick Stewart, the promoter of the Indo-European Telegraph lines, gives a description of this pass of Kamaridj, which is of importance as coming from a very distinguished officer of Engineers. He says:— "The path ascends this by a series of short abrupt zigzags, and on the face of the otherwise inaccessible mountain with a deep and dangerous ravine on the right. These hills are almost all of limestone, and their formation is most extraordinary. In many cases the strata are nearly vertical, and the outlines excessively grand and sublime. This pass, though not so long as the first, is perhaps more dangerous, notwithstanding the slight attempts which have been made to smooth the track, and the small parapets which have been built here and there on the brink of the precipices. From the summit of this pass a slight descent leads into the plain of Kamaridj, which is about six miles in length by three in breadth, and extends nearly north-west and south-east." It is certain that in the event of an advance ever being made by a British army from Bushire upon Shiraz, which was projected by Sir James Outram during the Persian War of 1856-57, the task would demand the engineering skill and military genius of a Napier or Wolseley, for a small force could keep at bay an army, and the path may be blocked with ease. At this pass took place, about the year 1755, the memorable battle between that great Persian sovereign Kurreem Khan, founder of the Zeud dynasty, and Azad Khan, the ruler of Aderbejan. In his first fight near Cazveen, the former was defeated and compelled to abandon Ispahan and Shiraz; continuing his retreat, he entered these mountains, and with the advice and assistance of Roostam Sultan, Chief of Khisht, awaited his pursuer at the pass of Kamaridj. When Malcolm visited the scene of the battle in 1800, accompanied by the grandson of Roostam Sultan, several men who were present pointed out the positions they occupied in the hills, Kurreem's army being posted in the valley. Malcolm writes:— "The troops of Azad Khan were permitted to enter the pass before the attack commenced. When it did the confusion was instant and irremediable. They were entirely exposed to the mountaineers, who took aim at them with all the coolness inspired by security. Those who rushed forward were met and destroyed before they could form in any numbers, by the body near Khisht under Kurreem Khan. All who remained for any

Entering Kazeroon, a piece of water in the foreground, the guard-house on a hill to the right, and the high hills in our front, with the plain of Kazeroon studded here and there with forts, had a sufficiently pleasing appearance. I was disappointed with the plain, as it does not nearly come up to my expectation. The soil appears very stony and very poor. Direez is a poor miserable village, and if it were not for a few date trees here and there, and the usual fields of young barley at this season, the place would be dreary enough. The town of Kazeroon is situated close to the range of hills bounding the northern and eastern side of the valley, and nearer the south-east end than the north-west; the valley is not more than three miles broad, by twenty or twenty-five long, and is nearly surrounded by hills on the eastern side. The mountains of the Kothal-i-Dockthur and Pir-i-Zan, are seen in the distance glittering with ice at this season. The climate of Kazeroon is bracing and healthy, and the water excellent.

At Kazeroon, I was detained fourteen days, owing principally to the will and pleasure of my charvadar. I lodged in the house of one of his relatives, and, although my worthy host was seemingly most respectable and disinterested in his attentions, yet every day's lodging allowance was a consideration to him in a poverty-stricken town like Kazeroon. I may here note that during more than two years wanderings in Persia, I never received the honour of the "Istakbal" (procession to meet a traveller or high functionary of state), or was presented with the offerings of confectionery, fruit, meat, vegetables, or any luxuries, as marks of respect or courtesy, though such are customary in the case of "Elchees" (ambassadors) or other great travellers. Once, and once only, if I except the small attentions paid me by Mirza Abbas Khan, who had the name of a good fellow, even amongst Persians, did I receive any really kind reception or gratuitous civility, and that was at the hands of the Kurdish Chief at Zerdasht, in Persian Kurdistan; I must, however, confess that in my wanderings from town to town, or village to village, I always sought the abodes of the humbler classes, and of these I have almost always to speak in favourable terms, and perhaps few travellers in Iran have seen more of the Native as he is at home. As to the upper classes, they are either under the tuition and control of the Moolahs, or priests, which renders them most bigoted and superstitious, or else, following the tenets of the Soofees, are sunk in sloth, avarice, or vice. The

time in the pass were killed; but retreat was impossible, as those in the rear, when the action commenced, rushed forward to support their comrades. A few brave men, rendered desperate by their situation, made an attempt to reach their enemies; but they only hastened their own destruction. The victory was complete; and Kurreem Khan, attended by the chief of Khisht, and reinforced by several tribes of Arabians, pursued the fugitives, and once more occupied the city of Shiraz, where he employed himself in recruiting his army." Azad Khan, ultimately threw himself upon the clemency of Kurreem Khan, who treated him with generosity.

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expectations of the poorer class are always moderate enough, and when we parted, a kran or two, at the most, sufficed as a present, in addition to the sums I paid for actual necessaries, such as bread, and bhoosa (chopped straw), or jao (barley) for the animals, which often, in consequence of famine, extortion of tax-gatherers, and other causes, were difficult to obtain.

Some stay at Kazeroon was necessary to enable us to lay in a stock of that description of "the staff of life," known among sailors as "snap-jack," which is excellently made here. This cake, celebrated in Fars as the bread of zez dikhast, is often taken to Bushire and back, and will keep for months. To replenish our stock was a valid excuse by my people which I could not gainsay, while another reason for delay was, that my Arab had not taken kindly to the rough passes of Kamaridj and Tung-i-Toorkan, and was dead lame. I scarcely liked leaving him at Kazeroon for a month, whilst I proceeded to Shiraz, but ultimately I had to do so, and then had to look out for a cheaper animal. This occupied an afternoon, during which all Kazeroon was searched, until a long-legged and bony quadruped, bearing the name of "Murwarree," or the "Pearl," was forthcoming. Action he had long lost, for his age was great, but pity for his lot, which appeared to be the hard one of a "chuppar kansla" (or post-horse), and repeated assurances that he would go anywhere, induced me to close the bargain, and he became my property for 200 krans (about £8 sterling). But, *revenons à nos moutons*, and there are plenty of them in the plains of Kazeroon, especially in early spring, when all around is a pleasant and moving panorama of cattle of all sizes and kinds, and of horses with their often rich carpet "nummuds,*" bearing the unveiled "eelyât" women, with children in arms, sitting cross-legged and using no bridle or guide to the animals, while the black tents and household appliances of the nomads, with their valuable mares and foals, all in picturesque confusion, scattered amongst the flowering pasture (notwithstanding the rather sombre tints of the men's garbs), afford a most effective scene of shifting colour and form, which by the mirage†

* Nummud is the felt pad placed under the saddle, by which name it is known throughout India.

† Malcolm says:—"The influence of this vapour in changing the figure of objects is very extraordinary, it sometimes gives to those seen through it the most fantastical shapes; and, as a general effect, I think it always appears to elevate and make objects seem much taller than they really are. A man for instance, seen through it at the distance of a mile and a half upon the level plain appears to be almost as tall as a date tree. Its resemblance to water is complete, and justifies all the metaphors of poets, and their tales of thirsty and deluded travellers. The most singular quality of this vapour is its power of reflection. When a near observer is a little elevated, as on horseback, he will see trees and other objects reflected as from the surface of a lake. The vapour, when seen at a distance of six or seven miles, appears to lie upon the earth like an opaque mass; and it certainly does not rise many feet above the ground, for I observed that while the lower part of the town of Abushehar was hid from the view, some of the more elevated buildings, and the tops of a few date trees, were distinctly visible."

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is increased to gigantic proportions. This singular effect, due to the vapour extracted by the fierce heats of the desert, and called by the Arabs "sirab," draws out in grotesque and enlarged outline all the features of the scene—the town of Kazeroon, half-full of ruins, mosques, and date trees, with the many hundred encampments in its neighbourhood.

Soon this pleasant scene will be changed by the summer heat and drought, from which latter Kazeroon is greatly spared, though notwithstanding its elevation of some 3,000 feet above the sea, it is very hot from July to September, during which months the eelyâts seek the ever-rising "Yeilauks," or cold regions, of the Pir-i-Zan, or Dasht-i-Arjun plain, or even higher regions, to return again in autumn to the plains of the Karoon, around Shuster and Behbehan. This has probably been the custom for countless ages, reaching back to the times of Artaxerxes, or even earlier. Having had opportunities of frequently stopping at this old town—for it is said to have been founded by Tahamurs, the Demon-binder,* in the earliest ages of the world,—I have seen Kazeroon under every aspect, and perhaps its finest is in the evening, immediately after sunset. At that hour nothing can well be finer than the colouring in the sky, and Kazeroon—as seen from the house-tops, with the brown grey pine-apple mosque standing out against the bright yellow sky, with the mosques, date-trees, and quaint ruins and flat-topped houses in the foreground, the extreme distance being filled in with the deep violet-tinted mountains—is really very beautiful, the trees being of a brilliance and softness almost impossible to describe or paint. But all this changes in a moment, as though we were looking through a kaleidoscope, and the silent towers and everlasting hills are lost in gloom, rendered deeper by the overhanging steeps in the background. While at Kazeroon, a question often occurred to me in relation to our recently conducted Persian Expedition, and which may have to be answered at no distant day, should we again be involved in a struggle with this power, either as a principal or as an ally of Russia. How would Outram and Havelock have fared, had they marched by these passes on Kazeroon and Shiraz? Candidly, I think they would have met with obstacles and opposition that even British pluck and energy could scarcely have surmounted. I pretend to no engineering or military knowledge, but it does not require much of either to perceive that a very inferior army could here offer a stubborn, if not effectual, resistance, even to a well-organized European force. The Persian Army we engaged at

* According to Firdousee, and other Persian historians, Tahamurs was the son of Houshung, the second King of the Paishdadian line, a dynasty of prehistoric times, of which the founder was Kaiomurs. Tahamurs, commonly called Deev-bound, or the Magician-binder, from his success in subduing the enemies of his family, was the first to introduce the worship of idols; he reigned thirty years, and was succeeded by his nephew, the famous Jemsheed, the founder of Persepolis, after whom it is to this day named by the Persians.

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Bushire, Borazjoon, and Khooshâb, was wretchedly armed and officered, or Outram's force would have fared very badly on their return from their victory at Khooshâb, while crossing the plains of Ahmedee, Chahgudduck, and the Mashilah. They only, however, encountered storm and tempest, but they were short of food, and exhausted with rapid marching over a wretched road, and it was just as much as they could do to regain (fortunately unmolested) the camp behind the 8-inch guns in the redoubts and rifle-pits of the Bushire Camp. If a second invasion of Persia was ever meditated by England, the route from Bunder Abbas first to Kirman,—very rough, it is true, but not impassable—and thence to Yezd, would perhaps suggest itself with better prospects of a successful conquest of the Shah-in-Shah's country; perhaps still more feasible would be the advance to Shuster, by the Karoon and Ahwaz road. There is a route from Bushire to Shiraz, to the right of the passes I have described, by which the Persian Army marched when they attacked us in February, 1857; this is called the Feroozabad road, and, although very difficult, seems more practicable than by Kazeroon.

I started early in the morning of the 19th of March, to examine the rocks and sculptures in Shapoor Valley. I was much troubled about my horse "Firhaud," who had sprained his left hind-leg, or else damaged it in some way, as it was exceedingly swelled. All the people here have a different remedy. I first tried a poultice of mutton-fat and dates, which made it worse, then applied oil and a sort of ointment made from the myrtle, which inflamed the leg; but since applying twice a-day a poultice of milk and a small seed like linseed, it has improved. People here are in an awful funk about Mamasunnees,* robbers from Laristan, and wanted me to take five or six sowars, but I arranged for the services of four "tophanchees" (matchlockmen), as big thieves as the Mamasunnees, I suspect, who come from a cadjan village between Direez and the Shapoor Valley, which was full of sick women and men with divers disorders, but principally swelled stomachs and sore eyes. I am sorry to say now I am lost to all principle as regards medical advice, and recommended for the sick a poultice of bean-stalks, myrtle, mustard, or anything I can think of. When, at length, I was fairly under weigh, thanks to the headman, who appeared a very civil fellow indeed, and proceeded on my way, skirting a beautiful brook, lined, and almost hidden, by groves of myrtle, which appears to grow spontaneously in these parts, as also large bulrushes, and the wild blackberry, which is found in profusion. We now came in sight of the famous sculptures in the Shapoor Valley, on the left side of the river, and soon turning the

* "This tribe of Mamasunnees," says Malcolm, "boast of having preserved their name and habits unaltered from the time of Alexander the Great." They plundered his baggage in his first mission to Persia, and he humorously describes their panic when a bottle of nitric acid fell on the ground, the smoke and smell of the contents of which inspired them with great terror.

corner of the rocks, on the summit of which are the remains of a large fort or military work of some sort, I found myself close to the first of the tablets on the right side, and in full view of the Shapoor Valley, which is of small extent, full of stones and boulders, and down which two streams were rapidly flowing, the place being not more than seven or eight miles from the snowy hills which bound the valley in an E.N.E. direction. Going on to the second tablet, which is in better preservation than any, I first examined it well, and then ensconcing myself under the shelter of a huge rock, on which the sculptures are carved in relief, I proceeded to discuss breakfast with an appetite sharpened by the fine bracing air. A little further on, a fine dark-grey limestone rock rose almost perpendicularly to a height of 500 or 600 feet in a cone shape.

Breakfast over, and having taken a parting look at Shapoor, I crossed the river with some difficulty, as the water was up to my horse's belly in some places. An Eelyât village, constructed of willow branches was erected here, the inhabitants of which were very civil, but apparently very poor. The air is fragrant with myrtle and wild flowers, and the clear stream, rushing over rocks, and by trunks of pollard willows, looked most refreshing in the hot sunshine. Scrambling along a narrow path cut out of the rock, I came to two places hewn out and supported by two or three little pillars left in the rock; here you have to double yourself up to get along, as it is not more than eighteen inches high, and about a foot wide. You are now facing the first of the tablets, on the left hand side, of which there are four altogether. I admired the tablet with the two kings exchanging rings best. The horses are very small, and this occurring in every tablet, would lead one to imagine the horse at that time was really undersized, or the warrior taller in stature than in our day. The horses' tails are bound up, and their figures are always well executed, while the features of the riders are very expressive.

Recrossing the river, I stopped under the ruins of a building of hewn stones of great size, with a fine tree growing out of it. Continuing my way back, I paid and dismissed my guard. The plain is covered with Eelyâts migrating. Horses, colts, sheep, women on horseback, and children, cattle, and dogs—a lively scene. Leaving this village, I fell in with a shikari and his son, with two dogs, and we had a run or two after foxes. He took one alive, hauling it out of the hole—the dogs having just managed to grip it in time—and, taking it home, killed and skinned it; the value of a fox-hide being about one kran. What a shikari! How this vulpicide would be execrated by the gentlemen of the Quorn and Pytchley Hunts!

Passing along through undulating ground, the afternoon sun decreasing in strength as the day advanced, the ride became pleasant enough, and the numerous fields of beans (*barcoli*) gave

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out a delicious scent as the breeze swept over them: these bean-fields are numerous, and they appear to have been well sown and carefully tended.

After fourteen days' stay at Kazeroon, I determined upon proceeding to Shiraz, leaving my poor lamed horse at the former place. I did not get away till three p.m., and owing to the dilatoriness of the muleteers, it was some time later before I got clear of the suburbs of gardens and fields surrounding the town. Our cavalcade was a motley one; "Murwarree," who proved a good roadster, notwithstanding his years, took the lead; my one-eyed cook, Abdullah, sitting on the "khorgeen," or sacks, on his mule, came next, with several travellers to Shiraz, who had joined our kafilah for mutual protection from fear of the Mamasunnees, who, within the last few days, had been robbing on various parts of the road we should have to pass. All the Eelyât tribes are held in disgust by the mule-drivers, and perhaps not without reason, for light-fingered gentry abound amongst them. Our way was pleasant and easy enough till we neared the Kothal-i-Dockhtur, or "Pass of the Virgin." Water is abundant at this season, and, as I have before remarked, the grass-fields are beautiful in spring. On our right was a wide expanse of valley, but the range of hills extended all along close on our left, increasing in height till they joined the other range of mountains we had to ascend. The mules travelled slowly at this season, and their owners encourage delay, as they feed as they go along almost entirely on grass. The sun along the road to the foot of the Kothal-i-Dockhtur was very oppressive, near a rahdar (tower) I fell in with two donkeys, whose riders warned us not to linger on the way, as they had been plundered by the Mamasunnees. After a further two or three miles, we were again warned by some guards not to proceed into the mountains at night, so, after riding over a rough causeway of boulders raised over a swamp, we halted at Takht-i-Timour, a "munzil," or resting-place, where there is a tablet cut out in the rocks, representing Timour Meerza and attendants. Indeed the charvadar refused to go into the mountains, which frowned forbidingly in the gloom, and, perhaps, he was right, for the busy eyes of the "Eels" we passed, had been on our caravan all the afternoon, so we had no help for it, but to halt on the plain close to a lake which was full of wild duck, teal, and widgeon, while at the end of the swamp, which skirted the lake, was a well of the purest water.

The Eelyâts, with their black tents around, supplied us with milk, and I got a kid for a kran or two; some duck also were shot in the swamp, and, indeed, there are plenty of wild fowl for sport here and all the way to Ispahan. So we fared very well indeed; although my couch was comfortless, as I slept on my two boxes, under a tarpaulin stretched between two sticks. The night was chilly, with heavy dew, and the morning air so sharp, that after

a cup of tea and bread, always punctually brought by "Cyclops," my one-eyed cook, I was glad to be moving.

Before we commenced to make the ascent of the Kothal-i-Dockhtur, we passed a rude tablet in imitation of the Shapoor sculptures, cut in the rock near a small munzil. On this slab was a representation of Prince Timour Mirza, one of three Persian princes who fled to England after the defeat of the Firman Firmai, Governor of Shiraz, who was in rebellion against Mahomed Shah, who had just come to the throne. As Mahomed Shah was supported by the ambassadors of the several European Powers, and had taken possession of all the Persian territory but Fars the Firman Firmai had no chance of success in his refusal to relinquish the government of Shiraz. A battle ensued, which ended in his defeat and the flight of the three princes to England. Timour Mirza, before his father's exile, was Governor of Kazeroon, where, being rather a free liver, and not abiding closely to the rules of Mahomet, his memory is not held in great esteem, at least by the Moolahs. His effigy on this tablet, where he has endeavoured to immortalize himself, has very little left to identify him, and as everyone who bears ill-will to the Kajir family, flings a stone at it (a token of disgust very prevalent amongst all followers of Mahomet), it will soon be obliterated altogether.

We were by this time close to the foot of the celebrated pass of "the Maiden," and our people looked to their mules, re-adjusting loads, and tightening girths, preparatory to the ascent. I think, on the whole, that the pass, though very steep, has been exaggerated by travellers. I have ridden both up and down without dismounting at all, and when it has been crowded with numbers of the wild horses of the Eelyâts with their foals, presenting a scene of confusion such as we read of in accounts of the Pampas. These beautiful animals were running up after each other at their own free will, and upsetting the astonished mules and their drivers everywhere. Standing at the bottom of the pass, one marvels at such a work ever being made in this rude part of the world, for every portion of the way has been cut out from the horizontal face of the rock, smoothed, and rendered safe by a parapet; in fact there is nothing dangerous about it but its steepness. It presents a most romantic appearance, and, looking from the base, the mules ascending its sides are reduced to scarcely perceptible size, with others half-way up, hanging in mid-air, as it were. The road was smoothed and repaired, and a parapet built all the way up, many years ago, by the mother of Timour Mirza, before mentioned, and again, lately before we passed it, by Hajee Abdul Mahomed, a rich merchant of Bushire, at a cost of 10,000 krans, or rather by his relict, as he died before the work was finished. At present (1859), it really is in very tolerable order, and it is to be hoped it will encourage others to take in hand the Kothal Kamaridj and other passes. The whole length of

this pass is fully two miles, and, I should think, lands the traveller on a level of 5,000 feet above the sea in its highest part. Were an invading force to reach this from Bushire, it would not find so much to impede it, perhaps, as in the lower passes. Doubtless, artillery might be brought up this and Kothal-i-Pir Zan Pass at great labour, and, though rugged and steep, there is no better road. A short descent from this brings the weary traveller to the Valley of Dasht-i-Bur,* full of wild oak, but for the most part, an uninhabited and dreary country. After leaving Kazeroon, one no longer meets with the date, but the walnut, ash, and hawthorn, with oak, scrub, and other European trees take its place. Just now, at the end of March, the trees are scarcely in leaf, for the nights are still very cold, whilst the sun is hot at mid-day, but in the autumn these trees are full of acorns which, after being dried in the sun and peeled and pounded, are made into bread. The flour is soaked in water for two or three days, and then mixed with an equal quantity of barley-meal, and baked in thin cakes.

The thief-panic extended all along our route, and the charvadar would not let us stop even to get our breakfast, but pushed on to Kothal-i-Pir Zan, or "the Pass of the Old Woman," the largest and steepest pass of all, landing the traveller on the table-land of Persia, and going over a height of nearly 8,000 feet,† snow yet lying on the peaks. We still had a weary day before we reached our munzil (resting-place), which was one of the finest caravanserais I have ever seen in Persia, not having long been built, with roomy cells and, for a wonder, clean court, although appearances indicated it would not long continue in such a decent condition, and no wonder, for the State takes no thought or control over these most necessary refuges for way-worn travellers, as was done in the munificent reigns of the great Shah Abbas and some of his successors. If a rich merchant, or noble, leaves a sum of money by way of "suwâb," or "religious merit," to repair or build a khan, or bridge, or to make a road, his heirs usually spend part of the bequest on it, and run up a most flimsy structure, such as the bridges in many parts of the Daliki River I have mentioned, and put the remainder of the money in their pockets. There is no honour or confidence in Iran, so it is not to be marvelled at that everything is in a ruinous state, a disgrace to the Shah and all his officials. Near the fine caravanserai just constructed, is the old and dirty munzil, hoar with age, but still sound, testifying to good builders' work. No dwellings are within miles of these two fort-like buildings, and there was not even a dalandar, or gate-keeper, who usually has nominal charge of a

* This valley is on the Kazeroon side of the Kothal-i-Pir Zan. The valley on the further side is the Dasht-i-Arjun, "plain of the wild almond."

† Colonel Stewart estimates the highest point of the road at 7,150 feet, and of the midway caravanserai between the Dochhtur and Pir Zan, called the Mian (or middle) Kothal, at 5,750 feet. Captain St. John, R.E., makes Pir Zan 7250 feet.

caravanserai, and of whom fire-wood, bread, and grain for animals, can be bought.

The day's journey has been a weary one, and it has been a long pull of seven farsakhs at least. The worst part of the Kothal-i-Pir Zan had been accomplished, and the next stage to Dasht-i-Arjun was short, so the sun was well up ere we commenced the long and tedious remaining drag to the summit. I looked round the fine caravanserai of Mian-i-Kothal, or "Centre of the Pass," whilst my people were eating their mess of *haleem*, made of wheat and chopped meat and dates and hard boiled eggs, mixed together. Two or three dirty toofanchis, or musketeers, who were to guard us on the road (heaven save the mark !), here put in an appearance, and though most likely they are robbers themselves, our charvadar would not leave without them. One only possessed a complete toofang, or gun, and this would have been decidedly dangerous to its owner if used against an enemy; the other two had a barrel without a stock, and a shishpeer, or iron-headed club, between them. The appetite of these people is something tremendous; a Persian will consume three or four pounds of their unleavened bread at a sitting.

With regard to the munzil itself, it was divided into courts with open rooms all round after a fashion I have seldom met with, but far better finished and more comfortable than the open cells of the caravanserai type. These rooms had regular fire places in them; no stoves or fire-irons, but merely places of brick and white stucco, which smoked so badly that even the small fire I lit on the first night very nearly blinded me, and I had to give it up. Snow falls deeply here in winter, and there are frosty mornings even now, at the end of March, with patches of snow around. In summer this must be a delightful resting place, but very dull, for there is no other habitation for miles. I heard the caravanserai was built by the Hajee Kowam of Shiraz. A small-built water course runs through it.

Toiling up the steep but fairly good road two or three miles further, brought us to the highest part of the pass, overlooked, however, by other hills, covered with scrub; these, rising fully 10,000 feet above sea level, are still covered with snow in places. From some points in the neighbourhood the sea is seen about Bushire, although 100 miles distant, and the people declared the morning gun of the Commodore's ship is sometimes heard! From this elevated spot where we stood, the different passes we had climbed lay in tiers at our feet, while the slopes of the Pir Zan were thickly covered with oak, hawthorn, ash, and brush-wood, giving cover not only to Mamasunnees but to lions and other beasts of prey. From the caravanserai to this summit guns could be easily dragged up, but below the Mian-i-Kothal, leading into the Dasht-i-Bur, the way—for there is no road—leads over horribly rough and rugged boulders and huge splinters of rock,

where I have in some of my journeys witnessed serious accidents to mules and their burdens, and occasionally a complete stoppage, owing to the meeting of two kafilahs coming in opposite directions.

We were now fairly landed on the table-land of Persia. The whole length of the Pass of Pir Zan is almost ten miles, and a heavy toilsome pull it is. We now commenced the descent to the Vale of Dasht-i-Arjun, our gallant trio of protectors having disappeared when most wanted, though we managed to get along better without them. The road leads through almost park-like scenery with level way, but near the bottom the descent gets rougher till the turf and level of Dasht-i-Arjun is reached. A few miles further we reached the wretchedly-mean and poverty-stricken village where the kafilahs put up, and where there is not the slightest signs of a munzil for the wayfarer. Some bullocks, in fact, were turned out of a stable for my accommodation, and I have a dismal reminiscence of being drenched to the skin in one of those mountain storms of hail, wind, and sleet, and spending an hour or two in drying my garments by a fire of wood and cow-dung at the expense of my eye-sight. We got good butter and milk here from the Eels, whose tents dotted the plain, with tens of thousands of sheep, cattle, and horses, while their women rode about or were employed making ghee, or clarified butter.

Of the valley of Dasht-i-Arjun, Sir John Malcolm writes in his charming "Sketches of Persia:"—"Pleased as we had been with Kazeroon, we found all nature with a different aspect in this small but delightful valley, which is encircled by mountains down whose rugged sides a hundred hills contribute their water to form the lake in its centre. The beauty of these streams, some of which fall in a succession of cascades from hills covered with vines; the lake itself, in whose clear bosom is reflected the image of the mountains by which it is overhung; the rich fields on its margin; and the roses, hyacinths, and almost every species of flower that grow in wild luxuriance on its borders, made us gaze with admiration on this charming scene; while the Persians, who enjoyed our looks and expressions of delight, kept exclaiming 'Iran hemeen ast! This is Persia! This is Persia!'" I might well rub my smoke-dried eyes when reading this in my stable at Dasht-i-Arjun and gazing upon the reality which was full before us, lake and cascades and fields, and all the rest of it. Malcolm, doubtless, was comfortably housed in a splendid tent, with every circumstance of pomp appertaining to his position as the Ambassador of the Governor-General of India, with unlimited resources, a retinue of servants, and a body-guard of British Dragoons—for in such state did he traverse Persia from Bushire to Teheran on his two missions to the capital of Futteh Ali Shah. Far different were my surroundings in 1859. Another traveller, of a

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more prosaic temperament than the accomplished scholar and statesman above quoted, writing of this scene late in the autumn, says he could see nothing but a drab-coloured plain, surrounded by drab-coloured hills. Now in spring it is slightly improved, the valley was green enough, and there was a swamp at the south-eastern extremity, into which water was certainly pouring from the ugliest and tamest hills imaginable, and I dare say there were flowers, if any one walked a farsakh or two to look for them. To my mind the valley of Kazeroon has finer scenery, and is brighter in every way, though, no doubt, Dasht-i-Arjun possesses an unusually fine climate, but it is almost uninhabited except by Nomads who graze an enormous number of sheep here in summer. There is also a beautiful spring of water welling up in great volume from marble rocks near the only village, and flowing over the plain to supply the lake mentioned by Sir John Malcolm, which is full of reeds and rushes, and on the whole possesses no beauty whatever, except the green verdure surrounding it.

For safety I had to await a kafilah going on to Khan-i-Zanioon, three or four farsakhs beyond. It was my belief that the people of the village were quite as iniquitous as the Mamasunnees, or perhaps worse, so to display my strength in arms, I hit on the following ingenious device. I summoned all the villagers with their leading men, who had been enlarging on the late Mamassunnee depredations, and taking them to a white wall asked them to look at the stupendous power I possessed in the European gun I had with me. This fowling-piece had burst at the muzzle, and having been shortened some six inches, was like a blunderbuss in spreading its contents over a side area. I then fired pretty closely to the white-washed wall and the necessary results followed, to wit, that the whole surface was marked with the flattened pilules of lead. Asking them to consider the deadly nature of this weapon, I forthwith retired to my sumptuous quarters, assured that good results would ensue. Cyclops was delighted with this performance of mine, and seemed much easier in his mind, averring that he could depart in safety to-morrow, for the news of the wondrous "toofang" would assuredly spread over rascaldom. Next morning we accordingly proceeded in company with some Eel Khanies, and other chiefs proceeding to Shiraz. As the road lay through thick brushwood there might have been robbers or not, but after the manner of Persians my companions ran along the neighbouring hills and small wooded eminences by the road-side, discharging their loaded muskets in every direction. They declared that quiet villagers in two or three parties had been stopped in the bed of the river we had to pass through, and several were wounded and one or two killed outright by these banditti.

Our road was tolerably good and level all the way to-day, gradually descending into the bed of the river, which was full of

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tamarisk and willows, and here we met with abundant marks of the thievish crew according to my men's account. No doubt this is a famous haunt of the Mamasunnee, for it affords capital shelter and is quite deserted. The river was running full and clear from the melting snow, but the weather was stormy and tremendous squalls of hail, rain, and sleet often swept by! Antelope, hog, and even bear, are found here, with partridge and other small game, but, being a traveller, I could not stop to go after these. My opinion is that this is perhaps the best part of Persia for sport, although apparently no one follows it here, not even the Persians themselves. After fourteen miles travel from the village of Dasht-i-Arjun, we reached the ruined and dirty caravanserai of Khani Zanioon, situated just above the Karagatch river before mentioned, and having, like the Mian Kothal, no habitation near of any kind. I have rarely met with a more disgusting place than this. A very dark and stormy night set in, and there was not a habitable cell to be found in what is called the Bala Knoneh, or upper room, over the only gateway. Half a dozen Toofanches were warming themselves over a huge trunk of a tree they had set light to, and I managed to spread carpets in the niche by the vast gateway, and tried to keep myself warm, whilst I dined off mutton broth, with goat's milk cheese; and Cyclops did his best to keep a lamp alight. The storm raged without, the wind taking possession of everything, while the lightning flashed and thunder rolled in awful peals along the hills, and the hail and rain could not be kept out of my ruined cell by any efforts. About nine p.m. a tremendous knocking ensued on the old iron-bound doors, and after being challenged, a band of travellers rushed in in great confusion and terror. It appears that only some few yards distant the Mamasunnee had fallen on the kafilah, beaten and wounded the owners, as we could perceive, so that they barely escaped with life, and robbed them of their animals and their goods. Other travellers afterwards arrived and complained of the same outrage, and, at length, after being almost pushed out, the garrison upstairs who were placed to guard the Shah's highway, issued forth, armed cap-a-pie, to arrest the marauders, but as the Persian verse goes,

"Diliri birun dur.
"Batun Kaufnag."
"Outwardly bravery—Inwardly terror."

There was not much to be expected of these robber-catchers, and soon they returned with the sole and unsatisfactory explanation that they (the thieves) had walked off with everything, and retiring to their blazing log upstairs, would not hear of any other calls on their prowess. These panics were not the only disturbances during the night, and, together with the dirt and dust blown all over us and our kit, not to mention vermin of many kinds, sleep was out of the question. But dawn came, and with

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it a lovely morning, and as our next stage was only seven farsakhs to Shiraz itself, we loaded quickly and proceeded by one of the most uninteresting and barren roads ever seen in Iran, the only pleasing feature on the way being the fine snow-covered hills of Pir Zan on our right, with occasional glimpses of the Karagatch river and the trees on its banks. After a few miles we lost sight of even these, and the glimpses of Shiraz—its cypress gardens beyond, with the few mosques it possesses, and still more numerous ruins, relieved by fine gardens of fruit trees, now in blossom and forming a contrast of colour with the dark and solemn hues of the cypress—was hailed with relief and pleasure by us all. Traversing a vile bit of stony ground for a mile or two, we reached the ruined walls of the city,* and at once were directed to the house of a very respectable man, who placed at my disposal a small but prettily adorned room at one end of a court and garden, having quaint decorations on its ceiling, and a comfortable, clean, and good carpet to rest my weary limbs on. As it was dark my host did not trouble me long, but departed with his "Khuda hafiz shuma" (God be your protector!) and left me to my reflections and my dinner which I think I had fairly earned, and certainly enjoyed, having had little or nothing all day.

THE AUSTRIAN MOUNTAIN DIVISIONS.

By Lieut. J. M. Grierson, R.A.

Of all the countries of Europe, Austria is second to none in the excellence of her mountain troops. With that appreciation of the aptitudes of different peoples for the various arms of the Service, which is the distinguishing feature of her military organization, Austria recruits her lancers from Poland, her dragoons from the German countries, her hussars from that nation of light horsemen, the Magyars, and her light troops from the Tyrolese and inhabitants of the hilly duchies of Austria, Styria, and Salzburg, and from the men of the Carpathians and Erzgebirge. The Tyrolese have always shown a special aptitude for mountain warfare, and again and again, in 1703, 1796 to 1799, 1809, 1848, 1859, and 1866, have they

* The distance from Bushire to Shiraz thus traversed is approximately as follows:—

From	Bushire to Daliki	56 miles.
„	Daliki to Kothal Malu	16 „
„	Kothal Malu to Kamaridj	14 „
„	Kamaridj to Kazeroon	22 „
„	Kazeroon to Pir Zan	20 „
„	Dasht-i-Arjun to Kani Zanioon	14 „
„	Kani Zanioon to Shiraz	21 „
	Total from Bushire to Shiraz	163 miles.

Captain St. John, R.E., makes it 175 miles. There is a second route by Feroozabad to Shiraz of 222 miles.

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stopped the wave of invasion at their mountain frontiers, or offered such a spirited resistance, that success has been as costly to the invader as a defeat. The troops, which in Austria are more specially intended for mountain warfare, are the forty Field and ten Reserve Rifle Battalions, the ten Field and ten Reserve Tyrolese "Landesschützen" Battalions, and nineteen (1st to 8th, 20th to 27th, and 79th to 81st) "Landwehr Schützen" Battalions. The strength of a landwehr battalion is 23 officers and 967 men. In Tyrol, forty men per battalion are trained as artillerymen. There are two squadrons of Landwehr Mounted Rifles in Tyrol, and one in Dalmatia, each with a strength of 4 officers and 180 men. In peace, there are five mountain batteries, three in the 9th Battalion of Garrison Artillery at Innsbruck, and one each in the 11th and 12th Battalions at Pola and Carlstadt. In war these are doubled, so that there are then ten battalions. In the army, at present, in Bosnia, there are, however, batteries which have been specially formed for the campaign by the 1st, 3rd, 4th, and 10th Battalions. The Rifles and Landwehr Infantry are admirably equipped for mountain warfare. They wear loose blouses with breast-pockets, trousers, and cloth caps of light grey or brown cloth, and lacing boots. Their accoutrements are of brown or black leather, and the equipment is the same as that of the line infantry. We propose now to study the formations of the Austrian Army for mountain warfare, of which we have at present such an interesting example before our eyes in Bosnia.

In mountain warfare, the use of large masses of men is impossible, on account of the narrow valleys in which operations are usually carried on. An army must therefore be composed of small, independent, and complete units, which may be grouped into larger bodies, as occasion arises. The best troops for mountain warfare are those recruited from hilly districts, or those long stationed in such, as they are accustomed to the fatigues of long marches by narrow and steep paths. It is for this reason that the Hungarian regiments are so unsuited for operations in Bosnia, as their country is a vast plain; besides, their tight uniform does not admit of the free movement of the limbs. Infantry must form the mainstay of all mountain operations, as this is the only arm of the Service which can go anywhere and take care of itself. Cavalry is only useful for scouting, seizing on distant points, destroying communications, or performing orderly duties, so this arm does not enter in any strength into the composition of mountain divisions. In most mountainous districts, carriages can only move with great difficulty, so artillery must be carried on pack-animals and armed with light guns. The baggage and provision trains of an army must also dispense with wheeled carriage in a large measure, and this is the most difficult service to organize for operations in the mountains, and ought therefore to be considered first.

In Austria, there are three formations which may be applied to

it, the "normal," "restricted," or "mixed." The former is for use in countries where long continued operations in the mountains are to be expected, and where there are few or no paths, as in Dalmatia. This formation is applied to the 3rd (Zara), 4th (Ragusa), and 5th (Agram) Squadrons of Pack Animals (Tragthier Escadron). The restricted formation is applied when no continued operations are to be contemplated, as in Transylvania, and according to which the 6tk (Budapesth), 7th (Temesvar), and 8th (Carlsburg) Squadrons are organized. The mixed formation is given to the train in countries like the Tyrol, where there are large valleys with good roads, where transport duties can be partly carried out on wheeled carriages. This organization would be applied to the 1st and 2nd (Innsbruck) Squadrons. The military train (Fuhrwesen Corps) supplies conductors, pack-animals, and harness for all the troops and establishments, but army commanders are allowed to requisition them when necessary.

In the normal formation every man and horse carries two days' rations or forage, and the men one day's ration of meat. Two days' rations and three days' supply of live stock are carried with the provision column (Proviant-Colonne) of pack-animals, and four days' more rations with the supply column (Verpflegs-Colonne), or on requisitioned animals. Every pack-animal carries its own forage for four days. The baggage allowance is, for staff officers, fifty pounds, field officers twenty-five pounds, others fifteen pounds.

With "restricted formation" each soldier carries two, if possible, four days' rations. Pioneers, sick-bearers, and technical troops never carry more than two. Each horse has two days' forage. There are no provision columns, and only the most indispensable baggage and forage for officers' horses is carried on pack-animals. The supply and cattle columns follow, with four days' rations. Staff-officers have pack-animals for their baggage, but that of others is carried by their servants. In the normal and restricted formations, shoes, reserve clothing, and workmen's tools are carried on four pack-animals per battalion, one animal is allowed to carry tents, and one for medical stores.

In the "mixed formation," the mountain train-carriages are supplemented by pack-animals for special operations in difficult country. In these the troops carry four days' rations, the rest follows on pack-animals, and of the non-combatants, only the officers' servants and sanitary corps accompany the troops. There are four animals per battalion for reserve ammunition, one for tents, one for medical stores, three for the forage of the officers' horses and the office-books, and one spare; in all, ten. Each mounted officer is allowed one horse only. In the normal and restricted formations, one pack-animal squadron per brigade is attached, whose strength is settled by the nature of the theatre of war.

Mountain Brigades are formed and grouped into divisions of three brigades each, but the latter is looked upon as the unit, and

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consists of all three arms and the accessory services. The infantry is composed of four or five line, rifle, landwehr, or landwehr rifle battalions. The brigade staff consists of a brigadier and two officers, with five pack-animals. A regimental staff has fifteen, seven, or four pack-animals, according to the formation. In the normal formation, a battalion has eight horses to carry 2,112 rounds for the Werndl rifle each, five for beggages, four for reserve equipments and stores, one for tents, forty-eight for rations (battalion-provision-column), and three spare, total seventy. An independent (*e.g.* rifle) battalion has two extra animals for baggage, two for provisions, and two for a field forge, or a total of seventy-six. To each brigade are attached fifty men and an officer of the Engineers, with ten pack-animals. The cavalry consists of half to one squadron of landwehr or mounted rifles, who carry two days' forage. The artillery is composed of a mountain battery of four 7-centimetre guns. It has three riding-horses, four animals for the guns, four for the carriages, and eight with ammunition boxes. The fighting-train consists of one riding-horse, twenty pack-animals with reserve ammunition, and two with spare carriages. The baggage-train consists of eight pack-animals for baggage, two for field forge, and two country-carts. One hundred and twelve rounds per gun are carried. Each brigade has a quarter of a mountain sanitary detachment with ten pack-animals, and forms a bearer column and a dressing station. The brigade reserve ammunition column carries one hundred rounds per gun, and twenty per rifle on forty-two animals for infantry, and twenty-five for artillery ammunition, and has two for reserve carriages, two for a field forge, four with materials for demolitions, and two spare, in all, seventy-seven pack animals, and two country carts. In the mixed formation, this column has forty pack-animals and forty country carts. The animals for the reserve supply column are obtained by requisition.

A mountain division has three brigades of four or five battalions, and divisional troops. Its staff is the same as that of an ordinary division, with signal detachments and thirty-seven pack-animals in the normal, five in the restricted formation. To the division, besides the three mountain batteries, are attached two or three field batteries, forming the reserve artillery, one or two squadrons of mounted rifles, and a company of engineers with five officers, two hundred and twenty men, one riding, and forty pack-horses. On the latter are carried sixty-three kilogrammes of materials for demolitions, including twenty-six kilogrammes of dynamite. With each section of the company are fifty sets of intrenching, thirty of cutting, six of carpenters' and eight of masons' tools. In mixed formation, thirty-five, and in restricted, thirty-nine pack-animals are taken. The divisional sanitary column has three surgeons, four officers, one apothecary, one hundred and eighty-eight men, twenty-eight drivers, eight officers' horses, and forty pack-animals. In the restricted and normal formations, only twenty-two drivers and thirty-six pack-

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animals are taken. The divisional reserve ammunition column is formed of three brigade columns. If the brigades are formed into a division, they are given artillery, cavalry, engineers, and sanitary troops from the divisional troops above-mentioned. Infantry marches by files, pack-horses in single file, cavalry in half-sections, and one pace is allowed for every man, seven for every horse. On narrow paths the men march singly, and the length of the column is doubled. A normal mountain brigade covers a line of march of 8,000 paces on a good road.

Great pains are taken with the training of the Austrian mountain troops. There were great manœuvres held at Bruneck in 1875, in which fifteen battalions and three batteries took part, and at the end of minor divisional manœuvres last year, the 15th Brigade marched from Bruneck to Innsbruck in four days. Anyone who knows the difficult roads over the Brenner will appreciate the difficulties of this march, which was accomplished in heavy marching order, in bad weather, without a man left behind. The same cheerful endurance of hardships marks the Austrian soldier of the present day, as it marked the "children" of Father Radetski, and let us hope it will carry them on to victory, should they be engaged in that struggle with the Slavonic nations which, sages tell us, is looming in the distance.

NOTES ON HASTY ENTRENCHMENTS.

(*Concluded.*)

Having indicated the principles on which incidental questions affecting the shapes of Hasty Entrenchments must be solved, we will now proceed to the consideration of the types adopted by the Austrian Military Committee, as the results of experimental research.

Before doing so, it may be well to quote from the Berlin *Archiv* the considerations suggested by the subject:—

"The object of the parapet in hasty entrenchments is solely to impede the fire of the enemy as much as possible and assist that of the defenders, the latter more especially, as it produces a feeling of comparative security, and consequently, greater deliberation in aiming and firing. As regards the other advantages formerly sought, such an increased command and security against assault, it appears that, in the majority of cases, such results would only be attainable at an exorbitant expenditure of time and labour. The ditch is still intended to furnish the soil required for the parapet, but its other object, that of serving as an obstacle, is now neglected or abandoned. In hasty entrenchments, the excavation, as a rule, occupies the same relative position as in regular siege-trenches; its object is to provide cover by sinking the ground occupied by the

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defenders. Consequently, its position is always *behind* the line of fire. Its profile should be such as to furnish the earth required for the parapet. If sufficient soil cannot thus be obtained, a second excavation or ditch may be dug in front, but this, although sometimes necessary, is merely a secondary arrangement, whereas formerly the outer ditch was the principal and the trench in rear the accessory."

With the weapons now in use, the ditch cannot be made to serve as an obstacle without sensibly adding to the amount of work and the time required for its execution. Really to become an obstacle (for which opportunities will hardly ever occur), the depth and width must not fall short of certain *minima*. But these dimensions would give a profile greatly exceeding that of the interior trench, thereby rendering impossible the employment of a double line of workmen and taxing the powers of the latter much more severely. As a rule, the earth for the parapets of hasty entrenchments should be taken from two shallow trenches, one in front and the other in rear, and as nearly equal in profile as possible. This principle is based on practical as well as technical considerations. To get the benefit of the fire of the defence, cover and inaccessibility of position are necessary. The possibility of enhancing the effect of the former by making the ditch into an obstacle is a secondary consideration. Besides which, every attempt to make the ditch serve as an obstacle can only be attained at the cost of rapidity of execution.

This point we insist upon. The characteristic of hasty entrenchments is the necessity of preparing, with the *minima* of labour, time and material, a *minimum* of cover, which shall still be sufficient for the object in view. According to Waldstetten, in the case of battle-field entrenchments, tactical considerations require numerous weak works rather than a few strong ones.

In this sequence of ideas, the chief requisite is cover, but as this cover can only be executed within the limits of the time and material at command, it appears desirable to recognise a graduated series of types, of different degrees of defensive strength corresponding to different conditions of execution, from the weakest to the strongest.

We know that a parapet, 30 cent. (12-in.), or better still, 35 cent. (14-in.) in thickness is bullet-proof. Increasing the thickness to 40 cent. (16-in.), we get protection against fragments of shell and canister, particularly shrapnell and mitrailleuse bullets. Against field-artillery fire direct, 3 metres (9¾-ft.) of parapet is required.

To cover the marksmen as much as possible, *bonnettes*, 25 cent. (10-in.) high, and 40 cent. (16-in.) thick, should be constructed on the superior slope of the parapet, at distances of one pace (2½-ft.) apart. In the simple earthern parapets of hasty entrenchments the loopholes of the *bonnettes* may be mere holes in the mass of the

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parapet or undulations in the superior slope; the *bonnettes* forming small mounds of earth, one to every two men. For each *bonnette* a corresponding niche or step should be cut below the interior crest of the parapet, to receive the left elbow of the marksman as he leans against the parapet to fire. This is found greatly to increase steadiness in aiming, and should never be omitted when practicable.

All the types now to be described will be found detailed in Captain Brunner's work.

I. *Shelter Trenches.*—According to the prevailing mode of combat, a large portion of the infantry is deployed as skirmishers, in a firing line. The problem then is to provide as speedily as possible for the troops so extended, cover protecting them against the fire of the opposing skirmishers.

This description of cover, known as a *shelter-trench*, is thrown up along the whole front of the line of battle. The extent of such lines does not admit of the cover being made thick enough to resist artillery, but on the other hand the length and low relief of the shelter-trenches place them at a certain advantage in this respect. For which reason they should never exceed a certain profile.

The type, which we will designate profile No. 1, may be taken as exemplifying the *minimum* dimensions of a shelter-trench to cover troops in single rank, seated upon the ground behind it. The parapet is 20 cent. (8-in.) high, and 40 cent. (16-in.) wide at top, with natural slopes. Earthern *bonnettes*, 25 cent. (10-in.) high, and 30 cent. (12-in.) thick, are formed upon its superior slope. The total height of the cover afforded is 80 cent. (2-ft. 8-in.), of which 25 cent. (10-in.) is *bonnette*, 20 cent. (8-in.) parapet, and 35 cent. (14-in.) the depth of the trench in rear, from which the earth is taken. The slopes are made as steep as practicable. No berm is left between the trench and parapet.

A trench of this description, under ordinary circumstances, can be thrown up in fifteen minutes by the men intended to find shelter in it.

When circumstances admit of the preparation of better cover, profile No. 2 may be employed instead. In this the height of the parapet is 50 cent. (20-in.), the depth of trench in rear 70 cent. (28-in.), so that, with the *bonnette*, there is 1 metre 45 cent. (4-ft. 9-in.) of cover, behind which the men can stand to fire. The trench is 1 metre 60 cent. (5-ft. 3-in.) wide at top; the slopes are left as steep as possible, the reverse slope being cut into a 30 cent. (12-in.) step half-way down. There is no berm between the trench and parapet. Seated, in a single rank, with their backs against the interior slope, the men are entirely sheltered from bullets and fragments of shells. The step in rear facilitates ingress and egress.

A trench of this description can be thrown up in twenty to thirty minutes by the men intended to occupy it.

It may be noted that, in opposition to the custom in France,

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Austrian shelter-trenches are never constructed without *bonnettes*, and that no berm is left between the trench and the interior slope of the parapet.* The berm, it is true, facilitates egress over the parapet in the case of an offensive movement, but it is an impediment in firing.

It will be observed that we have not considered the question of pits and ambuscades for riflemen at small posts or for groups of skirmishers. For such purposes, the cover will of course depend on the nature of tne ground. In default of natural cover, a type suitable for the purpose can easily be deduced from the foregoing.

II. *Improvised Entrenchments for Infantry in Order of Battle.*—In most cases, time will not admit of the preparation of cover, during an engagement, for infantry in order of battle, and this object has to be almost accomplished by taking advantage of the *ground.* But when the importance of a particular point has indicated beforehand the need of occupying it with troops in close order, or when skirmishers are likely to be required to hold a given position for some length of time without assistance, cover should be provided to protect them as much as possible from the fire of the enemy's field-guns, as the occasion will be opportune for the employment of artillery.

As the new hollow projectiles now used for field-guns penetrate, on an average, 2 metres (6½-ft.) into fresh earth, the parapets ought to be at least 3 metres (9¾-ft.) thick, so as to be proof against them.

The simplest profile satisfying this condition would appear to be what we will call No. 3. This is an ordinary shelter-trench for infantry standing (profile No. 2), with the trench widened about 80 cent. (2½-ft.), the soil thence taken being thrown over to increase the thickness of the parapet to 3 metres (9¾-ft.) and the height to 60 cent. (2-ft.), without altering the *bonnette.* By placing the workmen as close as possible on two lines, which will give the number of men required for the defence of the entrenchment, a work of this kind can be thrown up in the space of forty-five minutes, in ordinary soil.

Time and circumstances permitting, the profile may be further enlarged to type No. 4, in which the height of the parapet above the ground, exclusive of the *bonnette,* is increased to 1 metre 30 cent. (4-ft. 3-in.), the bases of the interior and exterior slopes being wider accordingly. In this case a 60 cent. (2-ft.) berm is left between the parapet and trench in rear. To expedite the work, a portion of the soil is taken from a ditch, 3½ metre (11½-ft.) wide,

* It appears that after the first portion of the paper had been written an official Manual was published in France, which recognises certain types of field-entrenchments. The regulation shelter trench therein described has a parapet 60 cent. (24 inches) thick at top, and the same in height above the ground. No *bonnette.* A berm 40 cent. (16 inches) wide is left between the trench and the interior slope. A trench of this profile would require half an hour to execute.

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with natural slopes, dug in front of the parapet. The sides of the trench in rear are formed in steps. The men, seated in two ranks, with their backs against the interior slope, one rank on the sole of the trench, the other on the step, will be sheltered, though without much room to spare, from projectiles falling at an inclination of 1 : 3. The objection to an entrenchment of this kind is that it can readily be turned against the defenders.

With ordinary workmen, placed as in the preceding case, and in ordinary soil, an entrenchment of this kind can be thrown up in one hour and a-half.

Where there is sufficient time but a scarcity of labour, the trench may be deepened to 1 metre 40 cent., the dimensions of the ditch being reduced proportionately.

III. *Hasty Redoubts.*—The length occupied by shelter-trenches is a decided disadvantage. Although, as a rule, not likely to be carried in front, they are liable to be turned, and therefore require support at intervals to secure their flanks and rear.

In defect of natural obstacles, it will be indispensable to provide works placed so as to check flank attacks and turning movements. Works for this purpose should leave a minimum of 1 metre 80 cent. (6-ft.) that the defenders in them may be screened from the observation and the direct fire of the enemy's riflemen. An open work of simple profile, within rifle-shot of the extremities of the entrenchments, will answer the purpose within certain limits. In the trace, the ordinary rules of field-fortification must be observed. If circumstances permit of the enclosure of one of these points, so as to enable it to withhold attacks from the flanks or rear, a closed work may be thrown up with the profile of a hasty entrenchment. As a work of this kind is not, as a rule, intended for guns, no openings need be left, the garrison passing in and out over the parapet, the interior slope of which may be formed in steps, if time and means allow.

As regards traditional defensive accessories, it must not be forgotten that now the most serious obstacle to an attack is the rifle-fire of the defence, the delivery of which over the approaches must be facilitated by every possible means. Still, when opportunity offers, which will not be often, other obstacles may be provided in and beyond the ditch. But in all such cases it is a question whether the time and labour might not be more profitably bestowed in strengthening the parapet and deepening the ditch outside.

Facility of execution in these cases depends on simplicity of organisation, the shallowness of the excavation, and the possibility of employing the workmen in two lines throughout. Sometimes it is absolutely necessary to increase the relief of the work, to prevent the enemy having a command of observation over the interior. But, in every case, easy and rapid execution is the main point. Hence simplicity of structure and the adoption of the lowest dimensions practicable, become matters of urgent necessity.

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In view of these requirements, another profile, No. 5, which fulfils all the conditions essential to a good defence, may be adopted as the *normal profile*; unless circumstances admit only of the *reduced profile*, already described as No. 4. Under exceptional circumstances, profile No. 3 may even be used, but for closed works profile No. 4 may be taken as the minimum.

In profile No. 5, the parapet is 1 metre 80 cent. (6-ft.) high without the *bonnette*. The trench is 3 metres 60 cent. (11¾-ft.) wide at top, and 1 metre 05 cent. in depth. A berm, 1 metre wide, is left between the trench and parapet, a step-banquette being formed upon it. The slope of the trench below it is also cut into steps of 30 cent. (12-in.) trench. The ditch outside is 3 metres 50 cent. (11-ft.) wide at top with natural slopes, and has a *deblai* equal to that of the trench in rear. A 60 cent. (18-in.) berm is left between the ditch and exterior slope of the parapet. The wings may be formed with a profile of similar dimensions, but with a solid banquette, the slope of which is carried down to the sole of the trench. In this case, the reverse of the trench is cut into steps.

This last profile, which may be called No. 6, is the strongest, and takes most time of all. With the workmen placed as close as possible, and assuming that each man removes 400 cub. decimetres (about half a cubic yard) of soil in the hour, its execution will occupy three and a-half hours.

For the gorges of works, a reduced profile, which may be called No. 7, can be used. To protect the men in the trenches of the latter an earthen *parados*, 70 cent. (2½-ft.) high and 3 metres (9¾-ft.) thick at top, is formed above the reverse of the trench.

Entrenchments of the profiles 5, 6 and 7 should be frequently practised, as they are easily thrown up and fulfil all the conditions likely to present themselves. Their simplicity facilitates their execution, and ensures a sufficiency of cover without complicating the interior arrangements.

The garrison, calculated for a single rank firing, with a reserve to fill up casualties, can easily be accommodated in the trenches and behind the parados. When reduced profiles are used, they should, it hardly need be said, always be increased to the normal dimensions from both sides of the parapet at once, whenever circumstances permit.

Besides the above, may be mentioned covering masses of earth not intended for purposes of defence but simply as shelter, where natural cover is wanting, for supports or reserves of skirmishing lines, for garrisons exposed to a reverse fire, for places for the first treatment of the wounded, &c. To this category belong traverses and parados in defensive works, epaulments for the limbers of field-guns, &c. The only conditions essential in these are, that the parapets be high enough and thick enough to stop the flight of dangerous projectiles.

The profiles above given have the merit of being so far of one

type that the transition from the weakest to the strongest profile is easy. It may so happen that being in ignorance of the enemy's movements or in expectation of an instant attack, it appears desirable to entrench, so as to offer a systematic defence, which, weak at first, may be strengthened as opportunities offer. In such cases it would be desirable to recognise a type of *progressive entrenchment*, which beginning with profile No. 1, could be enlarged to profiles Nos. 2, 3 and 4, in succession, as opportunities might afford.

IV. *Improvised Cover for Artillery.*—The experience of the last wars has shown that field-guns at 15 metres interval can very rarely be dismounted by direct fire. Although the increased precision of the guns now in use may render such a result more frequent, the service of the guns will be more than ever impeded by the effects of shell fragments and shrapnell on the gun-detachments and teams. Consequently, it becomes a matter of absolute necessity to protect the detachments as much as possible against such projectiles.

For this purpose, as we have before observed, an epaulment, 30 cent. (12-in.), or better, 35 cent. (14-in.) in thickness, would suffice; but for field-artillery projectiles, we must have at least 3 metres. The thickness of the cover to be provided will therefore vary between these limits.

The interval in action depends on the precision and effects of the enemy's fire. In the field, circumstances permitting, 15 metres is the interval for guns without cover of any kind. This arrangement materially weakens the effect of the enemy's fire, as individual pieces are neither within the limits of deviation of the projectiles, nor within the radius of dispersion of the fragments of shells and shrapnells fired at the guns next them on either side. This advantage ought to be preserved when the guns are placed under cover, by providing a separate shelter, called a gun-epaulment, for each piece. For the sake of rapidity of execution, and when the guns are well covered, the interval may be reduced to 10 metres, or in certain cases to half-interval, 8 metres.

The epaulments for single-pieces, which have the effect of lessening the precision of the enemy's fire by rendering range-finding and laying more difficult, are generally thick enough only to turn musketry and small splinters, the time available not admitting of the preparation of better cover.

Experiments made in Austria show that a gun protected by cover of the simplest type, which we will call A, suffers enormously less, *i.e.*, 16 times, than a gun without such protection. In hasty fortification only epaulments and sunken batteries are used, for the sake of rapidity of execution.

The three types, A, B, and C, may be taken as representing the simplest forms of cover for single field guns. Type A, is a parapet, 70 cent. (28-in.) high, 40 cent. (16-in.) wide at top, and 180 cent. (6-ft.) wide at base, with equal slopes. It covers a gun firng *en barbette* up to the axles. The platform is 4 metres (13-ft.) long,

and is sunk 25 cent. (10-in.) below the surface. The reverse slopes form a range of 1 : 4; the other slopes are kept as stiff as possible. This type may be executed in half-an-hour by six ordinary labourers, or in half that time by the same number of trained workmen.

By putting on eight extra men to dig a ditch outside 1½ metre (4-ft. 9-in.) wide, leaving a narrow berm between it and the parapet, the height of the latter can be raised so as to give 1 metre 35 cent. (4-ft. 5-in.) of cover, with a proportionate increase of breadth at base, which constitutes type B. In this and the succeeding type the gun is fired through a sort of embrasure cut out in the line of axis of the piece. In type C, small shelter-trenches are formed on each side of the piece, for the detachment, when not actually serving. These trenches are about 1 metre 25 cent. (4-ft.) long, 1 metre (3-ft.) broad, and 60 cent. (2-ft.) deep. They require four extra men per gun for their execution. Epaulments may be formed on the wings as a protection against slant fire. It will be observed that these types are progressive, and can be executed successively as time and opportunity offer.*

V. *Batteries.*—The employment of field-guns at wide intervals for purposes of defence will often be restricted by want of necessary space for extending the battery, and the need of providing a better description of cover. In these cases, what are called *batteries, i.e.,* epaulments each covering several guns, are thrown up.

A battery should not contain fewer than four or more than eight guns, but as it will serve as a good mark for the enemy's fire, it should be proof against every description of projectile.

Sunken batteries only are used, as what are known as horizontal batteries would require twice the labour, a consideration to which all others must give place. Barbette-fire, being the least restricted in its scope, is invariably employed in the field. Sunken barbette batteries, as presenting the lowest relief and being quickest thrown up, are therefore to be preferred. The pieces fire between *bonnettes,* 35 cent. (14-in.) high, and 30 cent. (12-in.) thick at top, placed between every two guns. A piece so placed can be traversed through an arc of 60 degrees. Where the field of fire is more restricted, the guns may be sunk in embrasure, by enlarging the *bonnettes.* The pieces are separated by shelter-trenches serving the purpose of traverses. These trenches are 3 metres (9¾-ft.) wide at top, 2 metres 50 cent. (4-ft.) at bottom, and 70 cent. (2-ft. 4-in.) deep. The ammunition can be kept in them, or better still, in small expense-magazines formed under the merlons and entered from the shelter-trenches. The platforms are 5 metres (16-ft.) long, 4 metres (12-ft.) broad, and 35 cent. (14-in.) deep, with a reverse slope of 1 : 3. The parapet has a minimum thickness of 2 metres 75 cent. (9-ft.), with interior and exterior slopes of 1 : 3. The

* A type of gun-epaulment much used during the siege of Paris had a similar parapet 75 cent. (2½ feet) high, a sort of embrasure being formed for the gun to fire through. Shelter-pits for the gun detachment were formed on either side.

remblai will be about 20 cubic metre per gun. If more soil is required, it can be obtained by enlarging the shelter-trenches. With eight men to each platform and the same number for each shelter-trench, a battery of this description can be thrown up by ordinary labourers in an hour and a-half.

Where the battery is likely to be exposed to a heavy slant fire, traverses must be formed between every two guns, with a trench in rear for shelter and inter-communication. A thickness of 2 metres 40 cent. (8-ft.) will be sufficient for the traverses. The *remblai* will be about 54 cubic metres per gun. The extra earth may be obtained by forming a ditch outside the battery 3 metres wide, and 1 metre deep.

With fifty men per gun, a battery of this kind could be executed in two hours by ordinary labourers,

In all the above cases, the work could be executed by trained sappers in less than half the time specified, which has been estimated for infantry soldiers or civilian labourers. This distinction cannot be too strongly insisted upon. It may be urged that, in the presence of immediate danger ordinary labourers would work as well as those more perfectly trained. But this is very questionable, and certainly cannot be expected from men who have never had any practice in the use of the pick and shovel for such purposes.

Although this paper has no pretensions to exhaust the subject under consideration, it may be well here to borrow from Captain Brunner's excellent work, a type of improvised field-fort, showing the application of types 5, 6 and 7. This work is intended for a garrison of a company (Austrian) and a half of infantry. One man is allowed to each pace (30-in.) of interior crest; the half company, serving as a reserve, not being counted. If the garrison consists of one company only, a section is told off for the reserve, and the deficiency made up by placing the men wider apart at the gorge. The trace will of course depend upon the ground and the object in view; but in all cases the angle must be made as obtuse as possible to prevent loss of fire there. The faces are made with profile No. 5, the flanks with profile No. 6, the gorge with profile No. 7. If the garrison is accompanied by field-guns, these should be placed behind epaulments thrown up outside the work, on each flank, on the line of prolongation of the gorge, so as to give them as wide a range as possible. The *emplacements* of the guns can be connected with the work, by shelter-trenches.

The subject of hasty or improvised fortification on the field of battle is a wide one, and in our opinion has not yet been treated in a complete manner. The celebrated Belgian Engineer, Brialmont, was the first to publish, under the title of *La Fortification Improvisée*, a treatise which has formed the starting-point for much subsequent discussion; and ideas on the subject will be found in most recent works on field-fortification and in the writings of many authors;

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but what appears to us to be wanting is a *standard course of hasty fortification.*

No one denies the need of this description of fortification. It is recognised as a tactical necessity. The precision and range of the modern rifle have probably modified the conditions of war, and the objections urged against the employment of such works are now no longer tenable. We must not expect impossibilities from them; neither must we, on the other hand, conclude that because at one time they could not be usefully employed, it is better to dispense with them altogether. Long ago it was observed by Napoleon I.:—"Fortification is never harmful; always useful; often indispensable." Besides, as judiciously remarked by Captain Brunner, in his work of Field-Fortification, it is not always the largest works which prove of most importance, but much oftener those which make little show, and require the least art and skill. There will be less unwillingness to quit works which have cost but little time and trouble. But then, obviously, we must not run to the opposite extreme, as our wont is in France, and having once contemned the use of field-works altogether, end by having them everywhere and on all occasions.

The fact must not be lost sight of that hasty fortification before or during an engagement, is intended to correct the defects of the ground, and to enable us thus to turn the latter to the best advantage. It is, no doubt, regretable that the many possible contingencies render it impossible to formulate any precise rules on the subject. It is a question of intelligence and experience, and for this very reason, it is necessary to practice it in time of peace. The problems given in Brunner's *Guide* will here prove of great utility in familiarizing officers and men with the measures to be taken under different circumstances in the field.

We shall not attempt to examine or discuss the cases in which this description of fortification is or is not applicable. The question is a *tactical* rather than a *technical* one. Nor have we attempted to repeat merely to refute the objections urged by various writers, which, as we have just remarked, vanish before the necessities of fact. But it may be well to repeat the gravest of these allegations and the reply made to it by a writer in the *Journal de la Librarie Militaire*, of October, 1877, before quoted:—

"An objection has frequently been raised against fortification upon the field of battle, which should be confuted.

"In throwing up works on the field of battle, it is alleged, defensive action becomes restricted to certain points, which cannot be abandoned without demoralising the troops. What is gained in strength is lost in mobility. So that if an attack is conducted differently to what was expected, particularly if the assailant menaces the flanks, the whole scheme of defence is suddenly disconcerted, and through reluctance to abandon a position on which so much trouble has been expended, the movements of the defenders become

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hampered and wanting in vigour. Certainly there is truth in the assertion; nor should it create surprise, as in war the greatest advantages are always linked with corresponding defects. What is needed, is to form a just estimate of each.

"To the objections urged, it may easily be replied that a general should never forget that his chief strength lies in his army itself, and that, on this hypothesis, he should assume the initiative whenever he judges it practicable. Besides, if the outpost duty is properly performed, the flanks of an army cannot be threatened or turned unawares; and should it be in order of battle, it is not allowable to assume that no time would intervene for the requisite change of front. It should also be observed that if the works have been executed with due intelligence, it will be easy to deceive the enemy, so that he may not realize their full strength until after he has committed himself to an attack in front, and it is too late to change his tactics."

Too much stress cannot be laid on the importance of concealing the existence or at least the strength of works of this description, either by their position, shape, profile, or by some artificial means, such as masking with branches of trees, turf, &c.

We need not look back far to find examples in point. Who does not remember that during the late war the Russians, after suffering immense losses in carrying the entrenched heights of Gorny-Studen, which they believed to be the key of the position, found them untenable, as they were commanded by other Turkish works in rear, which had been so skilfully concealed that the Russians had not the remotest idea of their existence!

There are, besides, other works to be executed in *every* engagement, with more or less completeness, according to the time and means at disposal. These are:—

1. Levelling the field of fire, by suppressing objects likely to mask the view, so as to secure the full effect of the fire. It must never be forgotten that an exposed field of fire is one of the most important defensive adjuncts to any position.

2. Preparing the field of battle, by removing any obstacles which may interfere with the movements of large bodies; at the same time destroying all communications likely to prove serviceable to the enemy.

3. Sometimes it may be necessary to create such obstacles on a large scale, in the shape of inundations, abattis, &c., care being taken in so doing not to hamper one's own movements.

This sort of work for the most part requires neither much time nor special art, and may therefore be executed without preliminary practice. It is enough to impress its importance upon officers of all ranks, and the necessity of never neglecting to put it in execution within the limits of their individual opportunities. Problems of this kind look easy enough on paper, but opportunities should not be neglected of affording to officers some practical acquaintance with

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the subject, and of giving the men at least a general idea of the same.

There is no reason why practice of this kind should not be carried out in the field, and very complete instructions are given in the *Instruction Pratique des Cadres*, published by the French War Department.

So far we have merely spoken of methods of execution, without discussing the question of tools. If we have succeeded in convincing the reader of the importance of hasty cover for infantry, the natural inference follows that an entrenching-tool of some sort ought to be carried by at least a large proportion of infantry soldiers, for example, by one rank, as in Austria; by doing which, the necessity of waiting for the trench-carts, or going in quest of them, will be avoided. Of course there is the objection that the infantry-soldier is already overburthened, and his load must not be increased. This is a serious but not an unsurmountable difficulty. In France it might be got over by following the example of foreign armies, and suppressing the *tente d'abri*.

After the experience of the late Russo-Turkish war, it is no longer permissible to question the utility of a portable entrenching-tool for infantry. The Russians had frequent reasons to regret the want of such tools; while their allies, the Roumanians, appear to have congratulated themselves unceasingly on the utility of their Linneman spades.

Take, for example, the events which occurred between 7th and 12th September, 1877, during the third attack upon Plevna. Improvised works, of no importance in a technical point of view, had made Plevna, in the course of a single night, into a position impregnable against open assault.

It appears now to be well-established that a position hastily fortified in the course of a few hours, the operation being repeated each time a position is changed, becomes with the aid of the modern rifle, even without the assistance of artillery, if not absolutely unassailable, at least very difficult to attack in front. It would perhaps be going too far to say that an extensive position hastily fortified would serve in place of an entrenched camp, but it may safely be asserted that it would render the same services, and consequently, that it is open to the same objections, of which the gravest is that it is only suited to defensive purposes.

But, as a writer in the *Revue Militaire de l'Etranger*, No. 393, remarks, it should be observed that the Russians, who were evidently bent on following the example of the German armies of 1870, in turning and masking the fortresses while following up their adversaries, nevertheless did not succeed in drawing the latter into the open field; their advance was divided and split up; their attempted invasion was checked and paralysed for months, not by a fortress of the first order provided with an ample gurrison, but by shelter-trenches hastily thrown-up in improvised positions.

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It may be said that the Russians could have got rid of the obstacle sooner, and resumed their advance. But, the obstacle was always unassailable in front, and any attempt to turn it was only to encounter again, a few days later, and a few leagues further, the same impenetrable shield, which guarded the little army of Osman Pacha wherever it went.

It would be desirable to learn whether the works thrown up by the Turks were executed with portable entrenching-tools,* as the Linneman spade, or with tools brought up in carts.

The first supposition appears improbable, as a man working on his knees cannot remain in that position over a quarter of an hour. It is true the men can work in reliefs. If the works thrown up by the Turks round Plevna and elsewhere were executed with the Linneman spade, there should be no hesitation in issuing that tool to a sufficient number of French infantry soldiers, if the portable entrenching tools already distributed are found wanting in durability.

THE RESERVES.

There has existed in Englishmen's minds, if not from time immemorial, at least for some centuries, a belief, that anyone who became a soldier, had not done a wise action, while, towering over this belief, was the more serious one to our national fath, namely, that men enlisting in the British Army forfeited all claim to the privileges and legal rights they had possessed as citizens. Promises as to pay, length of service, treatment while serving, amount of pension when discharged from wounds and other causes, &c., that had been employed as a means to induce the John Atkinses to take the shilling, could all be broken as easy as the proverbial pie-crust, so soon as the silver coin had passed from the hand of the recruiting-sergeant into that of the recruit, and although of late years, the public began to think this treatment of soldiers had become a portion of the history of the past, recent performances at Pall-Mall have ruthlessly dispelled the illusion. Let us try and tell how the authorities have managed to commit so great a blunder —a blunder so wanton, so cruel, and at the same time so unjustifiable, as to deserve the higher diplomatic expression of a crime.

The English Government, a very few months since, was confronted by a danger so great, that, to find its parallel, we should have to seek in the early part of the present century. Russia had placed her legions within a short march of the walls of Constantinople, the Sultan was ready for flight, his army was disorganized, and nothing seemed likely to prevent the soldiers of the Czar from

* We believe we are correct in saying that the Turkish entrenchments were thrown up with ordinary entrenching-tools, brought up on pack-animals, of which there were grear numbers.

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planting their master's standard upon the highest pinnacle of St. Sophia. The English Government had been protesting gallantly against the Russian advance upon the Turkish capital, and, but for the obstructive tactics displayed by the Opposition party in Parliament, would doubtless, even by declaring war, have arrested the onward movement upon Stamboul long before. However, it acted —if at the eleventh hour,—promptly and energetically. The British Fleet passed the Dardanelles, a portion of the Imperial Forces were drawn from India, and the Army at home, by calling out the Reserves, was placed upon a war-footing.

The determined front thus shown by England had the desired effect: Russia was not only stopped in the moment of victory, but she was compelled to give up much of her prospective plunder, and be content with, comparatively, but a small portion of the country her arms had conquered. To bring about so satisfactory a state of affairs. Lord Beaconsfield had played three trump cards: the Fleet, the Indian Contingent, and the Reserves, and we do not hesitate to state, that the last-named was the best card of the three.

The Reserves of our Regular and Militia Forces had hitherto been only forces upon paper. They might be realities, but, on the other hand, when put to the test of being called out and embodied, they might prove as imaginary as Falstaff's "men in buckram" were. It was argued by opponents, and even granted by the friends of the Reserve Forces' system, that the whole thing was but an experiment; and one in which the chances of failure predominated. The men would draw their pay, and avail themselves of any other advantages which the position gave, but when they were ordered to rejoin the ranks, and in short, go upon actual service, numbers would fall sick, and numbers more fail to appear at the rendezvous appointed.

On the 1st of April this year, pensioners drawing their pensions were surprised by being questioned if they were fit, should their services be required, for duty, and the officers, putting the questions, must have been most favourably impressed by the ready replies in the affirmative they received. Nearly the following day, the order was issued calling out the Reserves, who were all to be at their posts by the 20th of the month. We need scarcely explain what this meant. Men had to give up good situations, break up their homes, leave their wives and families nearly destitute, to go and serve their Queen and country, and when it became known that mostly all had answered their names on the muster-parades of their new regiments, the country at large felt proud of her sons, while, we may be sure, the hearts of England's foes did not beat with joy, when they read how nobly and well the summons to arms had been answered.

Despite official blundering therefore, which, as it may be expected, did its utmost to spoil matters, the calling out of the Reserves was essentially a success. At all hazards, and in many

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cases at much expense, the men turned up in good time. One poor fellow who could not read, besides being on tramp in the north of England, looking for work, did not put in appearance for a week after the time appointed. But when he called attention to his blistered feet, and explained that he had walked some two or three hundred miles to be present at his depôt, we feel certain he was not punished for the few days' involuntary absence. Men even gave themselves up from desertion, when it was known England might want her soldiers, and no country had ever greater reason to be proud of her sons than this country had, when, at the first blast of the alarm-trumpet,—the warning to prepare for war, —over 30,000 men at once left their various occupations to rally round their standard.

Much time and public money were needlessly expended. Two or three years ago, when the troops at home were told off to form the different army corps, the authorities made the most glaring mistakes in the arrangements. Regiments serving in the north of Scotland were detailed to form part of a force whose head-quarters were in the south of England, and *vice-versa*, as if the object of effective mobilization was one in which time and economy had no part. We are now apparently in the same predicament as France was when Napoleon III. declared war in 1870 against Prussia. We have the country parcelled out into military districts, each district, however, being without the means of independent action in the event of war. This was the case also with France in 1870, where, as it is related, reserve men belonging to the Army of the Rhine, were sent from their homes in the north-east of France, to depôts in the south, to obtain clothing, arms, and accoutrements. Then they were sent to join the corps to which they belonged. The only difference in our case is that the men joined their corps unarmed and without regimental clothing, although within the two weeks which had elapsed, clothing and arms could easily have been supplied to them all before leaving their own homes. The worst of it is that if war were suddenly to break out to-morrow, all this blundering would have to be gone through again, although every man's clothing, &c., should be in the district-store, ticketed with his name and number, ready to be given out to him just as if he was in barracks and had come that day out of hospital.

The Government got the men, but thousands of wives and children were left desolate, for what assistance is a few pence daily in these high-priced lodging, provision, and fuel times to women and children, when the bread-winner has gone? A very little thought and carefulness upon the part of the authorities would have prevented a public scandal and much suffering among the families thus left partly destitute. It never appears to have occurred to any official mind that a sum sufficient to keep a woman and her family in barracks, while her husband was away at the autumn manœuvres, would not near provide for the wants of a family in civil life. The

soldier's wife not only lodges rent free, but has her fuel and light for nothing, and, therefore, with the little assistance her husband can send her, can manage to live pretty well on sixpence a day, and threepence for each child. But in civil life, and especially in London, where the rent of one room would swallow up a week's allowance in money, the case was quite different, and had the authorities given the subject a moment's consideration, they would have seen how inadequate the money-allowance was, when the purpose it was given for was taken into account.

The worst part of all, however, was that when it had been demonstrated beyond doubt to the powers in Pall-Mall that sixpence a day for subsistence, &c., was a mockery, no change was made, for, even putting on one side such articles as food, clothing and fuel, and considering them only luxuries, things which women and children would be better without, the sum given would not pay lodgings. No; they, the authorities, would not alter their decision, for that would have been partly an admission of having made a mistake. The facts, however, were too strong for them, and as they would not allow they were in the wrong, "a change of front was made." The Tite Barnacles accused the Tommy Atkinsons of improvidence, and as a consequence of all other deadly sins. One of Leech's sketches in *Punch* depicts a pay-sergeant of infantry settling up with a recruit his daily pay of one shilling and a penny, as follows: "Bread and meat, sixpence, tea and vegetables, twopence-halfpenny; washing, a penny; stoppages, twopence-halfpenny, which leaves a penny for yourself—*and take care you don't lavish it*," adds the cautious non-commissioned officer. In the one case the warning is rightly given at the time the money is paid; in the other, the warning is not thought of until the Tite Barnacles are accused of incompetency or worse. The Tite Barnacles, in defence, accuse the Tommy Atkinsons with having lavished their fourpences daily away; spending it on fine clothes, billiards, pianos and betting, instead of placing their monies out at interest, so that when the war time came, they would have been able to leave their wives and families well provided for!

Of course, the thought could not arise in a Barnacles' mind that, while some reserve men had drawn fourpence per diem for seven years, there was a greater number that had not drawn the allowance for as many months. Neither could a Barnacles imagine that a Reserve man had been for weeks or months out of work, or had children sick, and, consequently, had heavy doctors' bills to pay. Yet Reserve men and their families are subject to the ills flesh is heir to, as much as other people, and will be found, when in health, to have appetites as good as even the Barnacles.

As to how well the men of the Reserve behaved themselves when up with the colours, the highest testimony has been given. Colonel North, speaking on the 12th of September at an agricultural dinner in Oxfordshire, said, "There was one thing nearer home

which deserved the approval of the whole country. No men in the world could have come more readily to the rescue of their country than did the Reserve men of England (*cheers*). It was not only their numbers, he never saw a finer body of men, and, what was still better, many of the officers assured him that these men set the best possible example to the young soldiers when they joined their regiments. He could only say that he had been a thorough unbeliever in the Reserve Forces. He had thought that when the time came for them to be called out, they would never appear, but no man in this country was more delighted to be in the wrong than he was."

We need not enlarge upon other discomforts that attended upon the calling up of the Reserve Forces, for, to men who have fallen gratefully into the more pleasant civil life, a change back to a military existence cannot be an enchanting one. To sleep on a sheetless bed, filled with straw,—not feathers—to be awoke by bugles at five in the morning, after being kept awake the greater part of the night by sentries "challenging," and passing the call, "All's well!" to spend eight hours daily at drill or "under arms," and about four more cleaning one's accoutrements and performing fatigues, are all matters in which little romance and possibly a deal of discomfort can exist; and, which to a man turned thirty and the father of a family, must at times be martyrdom without his being burthened with the thought that his wife and children are starving all the time he is enduring such misery.

On the return of Lord Beaconsfield from the Congress at Berlin, steps were almost immediately taken for the disembodiment of the Reserves, prior to which Her Majesty caused the following General Order to be issued :—

"His Royal Highness the Field Marshal Commanding-in-Chief has received the Queen's commands to convey to the non-commissioned officers and soldiers of the Army and Militia Reserves who are now about to return to their homes, Her Majesty's entire approbation of the manner in which they have performed their duties while serving with the colours. The cheerfulness and alacrity with which they responded to the call made upon them at a period of national emergency has made a deep and most favourable impression upon Her Majesty. The Queen trusts that the men, who must in very many cases have left avocations in civil life to fulfil their duty to the country, will soon find re-employment, and Her Majesty feels assured that many employers of labour will gladly avail themselves of the services of those who have displayed so loyal and patriotic a spirit."

Like everything Her Majesty does, this Order was well-timed and in excellent taste, and it is a great pity those who acted for the Queen should have been—as it seems—unable to understand her wishes or to obey her commands. The men had obeyed the summons, calling them back to the colours, with a promptitude and willingness worthy of the days of chivalry, and for doing this so

cheerfully and so well, what has been, and what is their reward? It has been, and is to most of them, starvation; starvation for their wives and families when they were with the colours; it is now starvation for themselves as well.

"How can the Government be blamed," it may be asked, "for this?" We have already pointed out how inadequate the allowance was which the reserve men's families received the time they were serving, and we think it will be easy to show that as great an error of judgment has been committed by the authorities when disbanding them.

The Government had exercised its undoubted right in calling the reserves up, and as the men might be up for six months, or for that matter six years, their employers had filled up their respective appointments as best they could. This doubtless was a great inconvenience to many employers, who will naturally object to Reserve men in future. But that is not all, for even those who have not employed Reserve men previously, object to do so now, for a like reason. We know of one case, that of a smart young sergeant that belonged to the Rifle-brigade, who when applying for a situation was told he would have been the very man to suit, only for his belonging to the Army Reserve.

It is therefore a matter for regret that the men were not discharged in groups, which would have prevented the labour market suffering all at once from a glut, and the men, who had earned a better fate, from starvation. Discharges should first have only been given to those who felt sure of speedily getting into work. Then in a month's time another batch could have been sent to their homes, and so on at the rate of five thousand per month until all had been discharged. Again, staff-officers of pensioners should have received instructions to make advances to married men of the Reserve forces, who were in want, to the amount of six pounds—or one year's pay. This could have been given thirty shillings at a time, until the applicants got employment, or they had received all the amount named. The Government might also give guarantees of honesty to the extent of say twenty pounds, to men seeking employment where a guarantee was necessary in order to get situations. This the Government might well do, seeing that it holds sums of money which is accumulating in the names of all Reserve men at the rate of twopence daily until twelve years' service has expired. The Government, therefore, runs no risk, as after six years' service with the colours any man will have upwards of twenty pounds lying to his credit in the Savings' bank.

It was also very unwise to pay the men in full—all that was due, and all that might be coming to them in the shape of pay or allowances—at their regiments. It was only natural they should wish to treat their comrades before leaving, and once that began it was hard to tell where and when it would stop. Many, doubtless, took care of their money, but many more we fear spent all, and arrived

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home penniless. Now there would have been no hardship in the paymasters of regiments sending the monies after the men. They would thus have been removed from all temptation. This was the plan adopted at Chatham when that was the discharging depôt for the invalids of the army. Whether a man had twenty pounds or twenty pence to receive, he did not get a farthing of it until he had arrived at his destination, and we have no doubt but many a one blessed a regulation which worked so well and so wisely.

Statements which have appeared in the columns of our contemporaries have certainly exhibited a startling state of affairs, a state as discreditable to the nation as it must be disheartening and demoralising to the poor fellows themselves. "A visit to the homes of a few—if the word 'home' be not too much a mockery—has brought us acquainted with scenes of pitiable squalor and hopeless destitution that might well excite the sympathy of people not generally given to charitable emotions. In Banner Street, St. Luke's, lives a man who has served with the colours and on the Reserve for eleven years. The records of his services show no marks against him for conduct unbecoming a true soldier, and as a civilian he has borne a reputation for industry and frugality. For years his trade as a chairmaker has enabled him to support his family decently, but left little or no margin whereby provision might be made for a rainy day. When the call came for him to rejoin the colours he had to part from a wife and three children, for whose maintenance during his absence there was nothing but the paltry pittance that might be eked out of his pay, and the allowance we have referred to. Before a month had passed there came another claim on his slender resources, and the expense of that time swallowed everything, besides flinging him into debt. He returned to find himself destitute of clothes, as well as of the tools that might have enabled him to get some little work on his own account. Since then he has barely earned enough to keep soul and body together. With a wife scarcely yet restored to health, children haggard and hungry eyed, and nothing before him but the workhouse or starvation, it is little to be wondered at that he fails to appreciate heartily the honour of serving one's country in the hour of need." That is one case; here is another. "A man, whose home was in Victoria Road, Hackney Wick, and who could earn thirty shillings weekly at paper hanging, returns to find no employment for him. Little by little he has been compelled to part with his furniture, his wife and children are in the workhouse, and he is breaking stones on the highway. Another soldier has been obliged to part with everything, even to the medals he cherished so much, and unless some unhoped for turn in fortune's-wheel takes place he will have to exchange the bare walls of his room in Clerkenwell for the streets or the dreaded workhouse."*

We might continue, but think there is evidence sufficient—if such

* Daily News, September 2nd, 1878.

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were necessary—to show how hard the times have been upon many men who assuredly have not merited so hard a fate. There is one case, however, so extraordinary, that if the man's name was not given we should have thought the tale a complete fabrication. A man named James Murphy had been for some time emyloyed at the Royal Arsenal at Woolwich, where he earned two pounds a week—not bad as times go. When the Reserves were called out, Murphy, being one, had to obey the call, and when they were dismissed to their homes, he naturally applied to be taken on at his old work in the Arsenal. "Blessed are those who expect nothing, as they cannot be disappointed," is an old saying which Murphy should have remembered, for he found his place was filled up, but believing he had some claim upon the authorities for employment, he wrote out an application and forwarded it to the War Office. To this he received a reply informing him "that having left the Royal Arsenal at his own request he could not expect to be reinstated." Having no means of supporting his wife and family of four children, he applied to the magistrate, Mr. Slade, for advice, who could only express his regret and recommend him to go with his family into the workhouse, the very place the man dreaded going to. Even when told this, the poor fellow held to the belief "that the Government did not intend rhe Reserves and their families to go to the Union for subsistence," but we fear that by this he has been compelled by hard dismal facts to think otherwise. Whether the course pursued will encourage the Reserves to come forward as readily the next time their services are required in an emergency by their country, is a question we think well worth Colonel Stanley's attention, or that of whoever is responsible for the treatment those men have received. If a re-action sets in, it may be more severe than the authorities anticipate. Now a little sensible and timely relief—an advance of their own money—not charity—would do much. If however something of the kind is not done, the success of the Reserve system, lately so assured, will be placed in great jeopardy. Is the sensible plan not worth a trial? We think it is.

NOTES ON THE SHIPS AND NAVIGATION OF THE MODERNS. *(Continued.)*

By C. R. Low, I.N., F.R.G.S.

We are told that the inhabitants of the African Coast felt great astonishment and fear at the sight of the vessels, and when they first saw the ships under sail took them for large birds, with white wings, that had come from foreign countries; but when the sails were furled, they thought from the great length of the

vessels, and from their swimming on the water, that they must be great fishes. Others believed that they were spirits that wandered about by night because they were seen at anchor at one place in the evening, and would be a hundred miles distant by the morning. Not being able to conceive how anything human could travel more in one night than they could in three days they set down the European vessels as denizens of another world. "There is no man ignorant," says Sir Walter Raleigh, "that ships, without putting themselves out of breath, will easily outrun the soldiers that coast them." "A fleet of ships may be seen at sunset, and after it, at the Lizard, yet by the next morning they may recover Portland, whereas an army on foot shall not be able to march it in six days." A spirit of discovery, and a hope of gain through commerce was certainly the real and avowed object of the Portuguese in venturing into these unknown seas, and Diego Cam having heard of a Christian monarch who was said to reign in Ethiopia, on his return to Portugal magnified his power so much that King John II. resolved to send an embassy to the prince who he concluded was the famous and mysterious potentate known as Presbyter, or Prester, John. This singular name afterwards came to be applied to the Christian king of Abyssinia, and the geography of the African Continent not being then well understood, it was supposed that ambassadors from the western coasts might very easily reach his capital. As in the case of the Arabs, who sought for Gog and Magog, and in our day, the popular desire to plant the British flag on the North Pole, the Portuguese thought that great glory would be acquired by the discovery of the abodes of this mysterious potentate. Hence, instructions were given to all officers employed in the African service, to endeavour in every quarter, and by every means, to accomplish this grand object, and accordingly they never failed to question all whom they met on the coasts about Prester John, whose name, they were told by the natives, had never been heard of. They then besought the people whom they saw on the coasts to inquire up the country for Prester John, promising large rewards to any who should give information which might lead to success.

A correspondence between the King of Benin, on the African coast, and John II. of Portugal, led the latter to suppose that the real Prester John had been at last discovered, for the negro ambassador of this sable monarch informed the Portuguese king that about six hundred or seven hundred miles east of Benin, there was a mighty king, called Ogané, who was held by the Pagan chiefs in that country in the same veneration as was paid to the Pope, by the sovereigns of Europe. They further stated that, at the death of the King of Benin, his successor had to send ambassadors to Ogané with presents, desiring to be confirmed in his kingdom as the lawful heir, and received in return a staff and a

brazen helmet, for a sceptre and crown, and also a brass cross for the neck, without which ensigns of his dignity, the king would not be regarded as their lawful sovereign by the people. This Ogané, it was stated, was invisible, a silk curtain being always suspended before him; and, when the ambassadors were about to retire, a foot was protruded from the curtain, to which they paid homage, and upon their departure were presented with small crosses. As a specimen of the tales extant of the exploits of Prester John, we are told that, when the Mongol army marched against the Christians of the "greater India," of which he was king, he "caused a number of hollow copper figures to be made, resembling men, which were stuffed with combustibles and set upon horses, each having a man behind on the horse, with a pair of bellows to stir up the fire. At the first onset of the battle, these mounted figures were sent forward to the charge; the men who rode behind them set fire to the combustibles, and then blew strongly with the bellows; immediately the Mongol men and horses were burnt with fire, and the air was darkened with smoke. Then the Indians fell upon the Mongols, who were thrown into confusion by this new mode of warfare, and routed them with great slaughter." King John despatched two ambassadors, Pedro de Covillan and Alfonso de Payer to the Court of Prester John, by way of Alexandria and Aden, where they parted; the latter proceeded to Abyssinia, and De Covillan journeyed to India, and crossing the Indian Ocean arrived at Sofala on the African coast in lat. 20°11′S. and thence made his way to Cairo. Here learning of the murder of his coadjutor on the road to Abyssinia, he wrote to his sovereign acquainting him with his discoveries, and asserting that a short passage might be found round Africa to the Indies, and himself proceeded to Abyssinia, where the King, Alexander, received him well. Unfortunately this prince died suddenly, and his successor, called Mahee, refused him leave to return home, and kept him a prisoner at his court, where he remained until the year 1520, when he was seen by Don Roderigo de Lima, who came thither as envoy from the Portuguese king. Greater glories than the discoveries made under the auspices of Prince Henry were reserved for John II. of Portugal.

J. A. Mandelsloe, who voyaged to the East Indies in 1639, says a fort was built on the island of Argoin on the Senegal coast, in 1461, and, in the same year, King Alfonso "farmed it out to Ferdinand Gomez, on condition that he should be obliged to discover every year a hundred leagues on the coast, by which means the Portuguese had in 1497 discovered the isles of Fernando del Po, St. Thomas, and Beuno, and Del Principe, and the Cape of St. Katherine's." In 1481, John II., on his accession to the throne, sent Diego d'Azambuja, who, on the 19th of January, 1482, discovered Elmina, or Mina, near Cape Coast Castle, which received its name from the quantity of gold they found there, and

where they built a fort. In 1484, John sent Diego Cam and Juan Alfonso d'Avero the former of whom doubled Capes Lopez and St. Catherine, and entered the mouth of the river Congo, called the Zaire by the Portuguese. Of this river, which has only recently been explored from its source by Mr. H. M. Stanley, Mandelsloe says, "it is beyond all question the largest river in all Africa, for being joined with the rivers Vambo and Barbella as it passes through the country, it is at the mouth at least twenty-eight leagues broad." King Emanuel sent another squadron to these parts in 1504, but the discovery of the Cape route to the Indies, and the superior riches of those countries, tended to divert attention from African exploration. D'Avero discovered the kingdom of Benny, or Benin, and visited, says Mandelsloe, "the city of Angatoe, twelve leagues from the sea, and somewhat further in the country, upon the river called Rio Formosa by the Portuguese its capital city bearing the same name as the kingdom."

In August, 1486, Bartholomew Diaz sailed from Lisbon with two vessels, and after discovering about a thousand miles of unknown coast line, along which he set up stone crosses, with the arms of Portugal, and quelling a mutiny of his crew who wished to turn back, at length rounded the most southern promontory of Africa, which, in consequence of the storms and tempests he experienced, he called the stormy cape (Cabo Tormantoso), but which the King of Portugal, by a happy inspiration renamed the Cape of Good Hope (Cabo del Bueno Esperanza) in order that future navigators might not be discouraged at the inauspicious title given by Diaz, who himself found a watery grave off that famous promontory. Diaz's great discovery was soon to bear fruit.

It is supposed by many that India was the country from which the Phœnician pilots of King Solomon's fleets "brought gold and silver, ivory, apes, and peacocks," inasmuch as the original designations of these various importations are not Hebrew but Sanscrit, yet even so late as the days of Herodotus the knowledge of that country was extremely limited.

The earliest fact which Herodotus has recorded respecting the intercourse of Indians with other nations, is the conquest of the western part of Hindostan by Darius I., but the sway of the Persians over that country was of brief duration, and with the conquest of Darius III. by Alexander, and the death of that prince in the year 330. B.C., the Persian empire ceased. To Alexander—who proceeded to the banks of the Hyphasis, now known as the Sutlej, and by the natives called the Gharra, whence he was compelled to retrace his steps owing to the discontent of his troops—is due the commencement of that Indian trade, which has subsequently proved of such vast importance to Europe. The Macedonian conqueror founded Akra (Akron of the Greeks), Bucephala at the head of the Hydaspes (Jhelum) and other

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cities, and proceeded down the Jhelum to Mooltan where he was wounded when storming the place. He also commissioned Nearchus to survey the coasts from the mouth of the Indus to that of the Shatt-ul-Arab, thus opening a communication with India both by land and sea, so that the treasures of the country might be carried through the Persian Gulf into the interior of his Asiatic dominions, while by the Red Sea they migth be conveyed to Alexandria. But the untimely death of this great warrior and sagacious monarch suddenly arrested the prosecution of these grand conceptions. The development of the plans of Alexander was not lost sight of under the enlightened government of the Ptolemies. Strabo, who wrote a little before the commencement of the Christian era, also states that some, though few, of the traders from the Red Sea had reached the Ganges.

The first European to visit India after Alexander's expedition was probably Megasthenes, who was sent by Seleucus, one of his successors, to negotiate a peace with Sandracottus after he himself withdrew from India to encounter his rival Antigonus. Megasthenes dwelt for several years in the city of Palibothra, supposed to have occupied the site of the modern Patna, and wrote an account of the country, to which it is supposed that Diodorus Siculus, Strabo, and Arrian are indebted. Attempts have been made to identify the places mentioned in the voyage of Nearchus, by Arrian (see Gronov edition). Moghu or Moghunah, situated in the Bay between Ras Bostanah and Ras Yarid, on the Persian shore, and formerly a station of the Indian Navy, was called Sidodone. Ras Yarid is called by Niebuhr, Ras-el-Jerd, or Baldhead. Many other places in the Persian Gulf are rendered classical by the allusions to them in the "Voyage of Nearchus," B.C. 328. To the west of Kongoon is Uhm-Kheilah, called by sailors, Cape Berdistan (or Verdistan) the "Place of Cold." Ormuz, mentioned by Arrian, (p. 352) is called Organa, Gerim, and Gyrina, by Strabo, and Minab or Minaw, from Mina-aub (blue water), is called Anamis by Nearchus. Neoptana in Karmania is the country of the Ichthyophagi, which terminates at Cape Jask, the Bardis of Arrian (p. 344). Other places outside the Gulf identified as having been visited by Alexander's Admiral, are Cape Gwadel, or Ras Noo, which he describes, Gwadel Bay, called Mosarna, and Ashtola, known also as Haptalah and Sungadeep, an island off the Beloochistan coast, about 4,500 yards long, and 1,200 broad, which he calls Carmine. The Stadium of Nearchus it should be noted, is 18·7 to the nautical mile. Koh Mubarek, near Cape Jask, means the "Blessed Mount," and is called by Marcian, the "Round Mount of Semiramis." (Geogr. Minores, p. 21.) It is not mentioned by Arrian. One of Megasthenes' companions, Onesicritus, who had served in Alexander's fleet as captain of the royal galley, gives the earliest account of Ceylon. The Egyptians traded with

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India by way of Coptos and Berenice, whose ruins on the shores of the Red Sea at Foul Bay, have been identified by Captains Moresby and Carless, Indian Navy, and Major Rennell says: "Under the Ptolemies the Egyptians extended their navigations to the extreme points of the Indian Continent, and even sailed up the Ganges to Palibothra.

By the decisive victory gained by Augustus Cæsar over the fleets of Antony and Cleopatra, on the 2nd of September, B.C. 31, off Actium, on the coast of Epirus, the Empire of Egypt passed from the family of Ptolemy, of whom Cleopatra was the last representative to the Roman Conqueror, in whose honour the Senate of Rome decreed that the name of the month occupied in subduing this ancient monarchy, should be changed from Sentilis to August. The Roman Generals were equally successful in repelling the invasion of Egypt by Candace, Queen of Ethiopia, of which Strabo gives an account, and the power of Augustus rose to such a height, that this sovereign and Porus, King of India, (this name as also those of Candace and Cleopatra appeared to be common to the monarchs of those countries) sent embassies and sued for peace. Augustus fostered the maritime trade of his vast empire, and Caligula, though in other respects a bad prince, raised the maritime strength of the empire to its highest pitch.

According to Arrian, the discoverer of the south-west monsoon was one Hippalus, after whom the wind was named, who made the experiment about the year A.D. 50, that is about eighty years after Egypt had been annexed to the Roman Empire. The great geographer, Ptolemy, who wrote early in the second century, is far less accurate in his description of India than Arrian, whose account was written about 140 B.C., and who correctly represented it as extending from north to south, while Ptolemy commits the egregious error of making the coast line run nearly west and east, the mouths of the Ganges, of which he names and describes six, being removed sufficiently eastward to allow room for the insertion of the numerous names of places of which he had gained information. The abundance of topographical information for which his writings are remarkable, says Mr. Major, was due to the great extension which commercial intercourse had received in the century immediately preceding, and to the facility which his residence in Alexandria, the centre of a large proportion of the commerce of the day, afforded him of consulting the itineraries of various merchants. He delineates with great inaccuracy as to its general form, but with wonderful copiousness of detail as to the names of towns, rivers, and headlands, that part of India which lies beyond the Ganges. His Aurea Chersonesus is shown by D'Anville to be the Malay Peninsula, and his Sin-hoa, the western part of Cochin China.

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Pliny (in his Book VI., Chapter twenty-three) gives a very good account of the route, by which Indian produce was brought to Egypt and Rome, though, as the Red Sea swarmed with pirates, each ship carried a detachment of soldiers. The goods intended for the Indian market were embarked at Alexandria, thence carried to Juliopolis, two miles distant, and so up the Nile to Coptos, a distance of three hundred and three miles (placed by Ptolemy in 25°20, N. Lat.) From Coptos the goods were transported on camel back to Berenice, a distance of two hundred and fifty-eight miles, the time occupied thus far from Alexandria being ordinarily twenty days. Here they were warehoused, and at the proper season were embarked, and in about thirty days arrived at Cana or Muza on the coast of Arabia, or more generally to Ocelis (placed by Ptolemy in 12°) which is a few miles from the southern entrance of the Straits of Babelmandel, on the Arabian side, and near the island of Perim, called in the "Periplus," the island of Diodorus. This port of Oceles or Okelis, now known by the Arabs as El Toorba, was occupied by the Romans, and held the position formerly attained by Adula in the time of the Greek domination of Egypt, which Ptolemy the geographer places in 14°20, and whose ruins are still visible in Annesley Bay, a few miles to the southward of Massowah, which the Greeks called Drine, (see p. 2 of the Periplus). From Ocelis the fleet sailed to India, making in forty days the port of Muziris—supposed by some to be Diu, though it is probably Mangalore, as Pliny describes it as dangerous for disembarcation on account of the pirates which frequent the neighbourhood, and as the roadstead was at a considerable distance from the shore, cargoes had to be conveyed there in boats—(in 14° lat. according to Ptolemy) or the port of Becara whence the goods were transported by boats to the great trading town called Madan. The fleet having completed their affairs, so as to have the advantage of the trade wind usually returned to Alexandria towards the latter end of Dec., when the goods were taken to Rome by the annual fleet established by Augustus. The capital invested by the Roman merchants in the commodities for this commerce, amounted in the time of Pliny, to five hundred and fifty millions of sesterces, equal to about £1,400,000 of our money, and the profit gained was one hundred per cent. The Emperor Trajan sent a fleet to crush the pirates of the Red Sea, and it is certain that either he, or his successor reduced a great portion of the country known as Yemen, for Arrian, in his "Periplus," (though some writers, including the learned Dodwell, ascribe it to some other author) speaks of a port called Endeman, or the Happy, formerly a place of great commerce, though he adds, a little before our time it was destroyed by Cæsar. Harris, in his learned and exhaustive dissertation on the commerce of the

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ancients with the Indies, is of opinion that Endeman is the same as Aden, and Muziris he identifies with Diu, though others identify it with Mangalore.

Many of the islands and places mentioned by the ancients it is impossible to find, and Diodorus Siculus gives a detailed account of an island called Panchaia, lying between the Red Sea and the coast of India, which he had from one Eucucrus, though Plutarch denounces the whole an absolute fiction, the only island we know of being Socotra, which was settled by the Ptolemies, and is described in the "Periplus." The Arab voyagers of the ninth century assert that the island was colonised with Greeks by Alexander the Great, and it is described by Marco Polo, and Abulfeda, and was visited by Nicolas Conti, who spent two months there, and by Francis Xavier and P. Vincenzo, the Carmelite. The ancients knew little of the productions and physical features of the interior of India, but that inaccurate writer, Diodorus Siculus, gave highly coloured descriptions of the country, which besides being a garden of plenty, contained all the minerals in profusion. Strabo also wrote an exaggerated account of its fabulous wealth, and Pliny, who had read every author on the subject, repeats the fables as to its riches, handed down by his predecessors. Arrian also wrote in glowing terms, and so did the geographer, Dionysius, supposed to be a contemporary of the Emperor Augustus, which was rendered into Latin by Priscian. Reference has already been made to the voyage to the Indies made by one Endalus in the reigns of Ptolemy Euergetes, of which Strabo has given an account, though he doubts its authenticity. Pliny also mentions the voyage of Patroclus who was sent to make discoveries, but it is certain that the limits of Eastern countries known to the ancients were Sumatra, and the Malay peninsula, supposed to be the Ophir of the Scriptures. Captain Burton in his recent work "The Gold Mines of Midian," would apply the term Ophir (otherwise called Ushaz or Parvaim), which he translated "Red Land," to Eastern Africa and Western India, but Sutzen, among others is of opinion, and as some think, has conclusively shown, that Ophir, the true translation of which is "Riches," is to be looked for in Southern Arabia. But whether the ships of Tarshish* went to Mozambique or India or Malacca for gold, the voyagers are said to have lasted three years, which appears unaccountable, even allowing for the delay in receiving a return cargo.

Though some writers have sought to prove that the ancients wanted few of the conveniences of modern navigation, possessing even the compass and charts, and that much of the knowledge of modern times, was only lost, and has now been recovered, there are only obscure passages in histories or poems to bear out these

* A name applicable to several places.

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statements, and Vegetius assures us that there was no navigation of the seas between November and March, and that it was not thought safe to undertake a lengthy voyage before May. According to Pliny and other authors, the ancients feared to venture into the open seas, but regulated their course by tables containing the names and distances from each other, of places on the coast, indeed their ships were built in a manner rendering them unsuitable for long voyages, or for enconntering a heavy sea. The Arabians and Indians were much bolder, and it may be gathered from the accounts of Strabo and other writers, that their vessels were swifter, being probably much like the dhows and bagalas employed in the present day in the Indian trade to Berbera and the Red Sea. A very competent authority on these matters, Sir John Chardin, who travelled and wrote much, says of the degree of knowledge attained by the ancients:—"I cannot tell," says he, "whether the Chinese found out the art of navigation and the compass, as they did the art of printing and artillery; we should consult the learned men among them to be assured of it. But for the other Asiatics, I boldly assert they are beholden to us for this wonderful instrument which they had from Europe by the hands of the Arabs, a long time before the Portuguese conquests; for first their compasses are exactly like ours, and they buy them of the Europeans as much as they can, scarce daring to meddle with their needles themselves. Secondly, it is certain the old navigators only coasted it, which I impute to the want of this instrument to guide them, and instruct them in the wide ocean. We cannot pretend to say they were afraid of venturing far from home, for the Arabs, the first navigators in the world in my opinion, at lest for the Eastern seas, have, time out of mind, sailed from the bottom of the Red Sea, all along the coast of Africk, down to the tropick of Capricorn; which is a space of fifty degrees, and the Chinese have always traded with the inhabitants of the islands of Java and Sumatra, which is also a very considerable voyage. So many islands uninhabited, and at the same time productive, so many lands unknown to the people I speak of, are a proof that the old navigators had not the art of sailing on the wide sea. I have nothing but argument and conjecture to offer touching this matter, having never met with anybody in Persia, or the Indies, to inform me when the compass was first known among them, though I made enquiry of the most learned men in each country. I have sailed from the Indies to Persia in Indian ships, when no European has been on board but myself; the pilots were all Indians, and they used the forestaff and quadrant for their observations. These instruments they have from us, and made by ours, not in the least varying therefrom, except that the characters are Arabic; and by the way I have observed, that the Arabs are the most skilful navigators of

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all the Asiatics and Africans, but neither they nor the Indians make use of charts, and indeed, they do not much want them, some they have, but they are copied from ours, for they are quite ignorant of perspective." Thus it may be gathered that to the want of charts and compass is due the meagreness of the discoveries made by the maritime nations of antiquity who traded with the East, commencing with the establishment of Tyre to the reign of Constantine the Great, a period of eight centuries.

Alexander's Indian conquests were lost to his successors for want of a navy, and Augustus, who designed to reduce Arabia, was unable to accomplish his ambitious projects for the same reason. It was reserved for this country to be the undisputed mistress of Southern Asia, and this great and unique position she owes to her navy, and will retain only as long as her maritime ascendancy is maintained. After the partition of the Roman Empire the intercourse between Rome and India, by way of the Red Sea, began to decline, though while the Greek Empire flourished, Constantinople was the centre of commerce between Asia and Enrope.

The Greek Emperors of Constantinople maintained three fleets for the defence and support of the Empire, but their sphere of duty was confined to the Mediterranean. One, called the fleet of Alexandria, carried the commodities of the coast from that port to Constantinople, and a second, called the fleet of Africa, was employed for the supply of Rome, while the third, which was stationed at Seleucia, on the Orontes, conveyed the commerce of Persia and Upper Asia. This last was divided into several squadrons, and appears to have been of great importance. Besides these there was the fleet of the Pontus Euxinus, or Black Sea, the shores of which, as in our own day, were a granary for Constantinople. Particulars of the laws regulating these fleets, and other details, may be gathered from the code of the Emperor Justinian, who reigned A.D. 528-565, and from a contemporary writer, one Procopius. But the Greeks were supplanted in a great measure by the Persians, who having learned from the small Indian traders, who frequented the various ports in the Persian Gulf, the safety and rapidity with which the voyage from thence to Malabar and Ceylon might be performed, fitted out vessels which made this voyage annually, and thus in exchange for specie and some of the commodities of their own country, they brought home not only the costly products of India, but also those of China, which they were able to procure at Ceylon. Under the Emperor Justinian, who introduced silkworms, the Greek Emperors were no longer indebted to the Persians for their silks, but notwithstanding this advantage, the merchants of Constantinople, narrowed in their fortunes by the repeated exactions of Justinian, were but little able to contend with their wealthy

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rivals in commercial pursuits. In the reign of Justinian, Cosmas, an Egyptian merchant, made some voyages to India on account of which he received the surname of Indicopleustes, and composed various works of which one, entitled "Topographia Christiana," contains a particular description of India, whence, and from the account of the contemporary Greek historian, Procopius, is derived our knowledge of the events connected with Indian commerce in the time of Justinian.

From the reign of Alexander there was a considerable trade from India through Persia, by the banks of the Tigris, to those of the Indus, but in process of time the line of route was changed, and the Indian commodities were shipped at Muziris, Barygaza, or Patala, supposed to be places near the mouths of the Indus, and carried through the Persian Gulf, up the river Euphrates, and thence by land to Palmyra, (or Tadmor in the wilderness,) where they were stored in magazines, and thence transported to Antioch for distribution over Europe.

Great changes were wrought by the Arabs, who, imbued with the new religion of Mahomet, conquered Persia, established the Kaliphate at Bagdad, subdued Egypt, and excluded the Greeks from all intercourse with Alexandria, which had for a long time been the principal resort for Indian goods. The Arabs entered upon the pursuit of mercantile enterprise and speedily outstripped the limits of previous nautical investigation. The second Khaliff, Omar, desirous of attracting the Indian trade from Persia, in the year 636, built the city of Bussora, which enjoyed a vast trade up to very recent times, and, even in the early portion of the present century, the East India Company maintained an agent for political and mercantile purposes, with a marine guard. About the middle of the eleventh century the empire of the Khaliffs began to decline, and soon after, the newly established cities of Venice, Genoa, Amalfi, Pisa, and Florence, entirely engrossed the Indian trade, every important port of Europe being visited by their mariners. On the partition of the Grecian states in 1104, by the leaders of the fourth Crusade, the Venetians obtained possession of part of the Morea, and of some of the most important islands of the Archipelago, and were thus enabled to secure essential advantages in the Indian trade over the rival states of Italy. The Genoese, jealous of this superiority, conspired with the disaffected Greeks under the command of Michael Palæologus, and drove the Venetian merchants from Constantinople, and thus the entire commerce of the Black Sea, and consequently the inland trade with India, fell into their hands.* The Venetians, in retaliation, procured a Bull of dispensation from the Pope, by which they were permitted to open a free trade with the infidels; and accordingly, by the settlement of their

* See Introduction to "India in the Fifteenth Century," by R. H. Major, Esq. "Hakluyt's Society's" volume for 1857.

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merchants at the different trading cities of Egypt and Syria, established their intercourse with India upon a more solid basis than that which they had heretofore possessed. While these rivalries were pending between the Venetians and the Genoese, the Republic of Florence, under the administration of Cosmo de Medici, procured, through ambassadors sent to Alexandria, a participation in the commercial privileges which were enjoyed by the Venetians. The Genoese, however, still carried on the northern trade between India and Constaninople, until they were finally expelled from that city on its capture by Mahmoud II. in 1453. When, says Mr. Major, the Turkish Government became permanently established in Europe, Constantinople was no longer a mart open for the nations of the west for Indian commodities, and no supply of them could now be obtained but in Egypt, and the ports of Syria, subject to the Sultans of the Mamluks, and as the Venetians by their commercial treaty with these powerful princes commanded these channels of intercourse, they were enabled to monopolise the supply of the products of the East to the countries of the West, until the close of the fifteenth century, when two of the most memorable events in the annals of the world, viz., the discovery of America, and the rounding of the Cape of Good Hope, produced an effect which proved fatal to the commerce of the Venetian Republic, and opened the trade of India to the Portuguese and the Western nations. Before the arrival of the Portuguese in the East, the chief maritime commercial powers were the Arabs, who established themselves in various places in the Persian Gulf, East coast of Africa, and Malabar coast. Muscat became a great emporium; Mohamedan colonies were established at Magadoxa, Brava, and Quilon; they were a power in Guzerat, Cambay, Diu, and Ceylon, and even extended themselves to Malacca, and traded with the Moluccas. The great mart in the Persian Gulf was the island of Kais or Kenn (the Kisi of Marco Polo) which obtained a surprising degree of opulence; at the present day the ruins of the ancient town of Harira, about two and a-half miles from Mashi Point attest the greatness of this emporium.

But the arrival of the Portuguese gave a death blow to the ascendancy of these Mohamedan merchants. The trade of Malacca, Diu, Ceylon, Brava, and other places, was wrested from them, and Ormuz, under Christian sway, eclipsed the commercial greatness of Kais, though it again was extinguished in 1622, by the rise of Gombroon or Bunder Abbas, on the adjacent coast, when to a considerable extent the trade of Persia was temporarily revived. The Arabs of Muscat now became famous as a pirate state, and for a century harassed the trade of the Mogul Emperors, and their dependants, the merchants of Holland, France, and Britain, but gradually they were chased from the seas, chiefly through the instrumentality of the War Marine of the

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British East India Company established at Surat and Bombay for the protection of their commerce, which at a later date developed into the Indian Navy. How formidable these Arabs pirates were at one time may be gathered from the fact that in the years 1809 and 1819, powerful combined military and naval expeditions were directed against their strongholds in the Persian Gulf, and it was only after the treaty of peace signed in January, 1820, at their capital of Ras-ul Khymah (also known as Julfa in the old works of travel) that the fanatical votaries of Ab-ul-Wabab, whose blood-red flag had long been the terror of peaceful traders, and even of powerful potentates like the Imaum of Muscat were brought to understand that the Great "Company Bahadoor," which had succeeded to the suzerainty of the Moguls, were as powerful on the sea as they had already shown themselves on land by the conquest of India. Mention has already been made of the celebrated Arabian traveller and historian, Masudi, and of Ibn Haukal, a contemporary of his, both of whom visited India, the latter confining his visits to the cities in or near the Gulf of Cambay, which he says, "are the towns with which I am acquainted." The Chinese scholar, Stanislas Julien, published in 1853, the narrative of the Journeys of Hiouen-thsang, who passed seventeen years (from 629–45) in the countries to the west of China, and especially in Bengal, and all Southern India, as far as Pondicherry, returning by Malwa, Scinde, and Mooltan.

In the beginning of the ninth century a Mohamedan merchant, Soliman by name, (whose narrative translated from an original Arabic MS., in the library of the Count de Seignelay, by Eusibe Renaudot in 1718, was rendered into English in 1733, and again in Vol. I. of Harris' Voyages in 1744, and finally has passed through a revised translation into French by M. Renaud in 1845,) started from the Persian Gulf, visited the Gulf of Cambay, Malabar coast, the Coromandel coast near Madras, and crossing the Bay of Bengal, proceeded to Burmah, Siam, and China. Soliman mentions the port of Siraff in the Persian Gulf, as the emporium where the Chinese ship their goods, which came from Bussora and other ports. There has been much controversy as to the identity of this port of Shiraff. Some think it was situated at Chiruh, or Cheroo, Bay in lat. 26° 42′, on the Persian coast, thirty miles to the west of Charek, but Captains Constable and Stiffe of the Indian Navy, to whom every spot in the Gulf is familiar, identify it with Taurie, or Tahri, in lat. 27° 40′. Soliman says that from Bussora to Siraff is 120 leagues, and from thence to Muscat 200 leagues. The Mohamedan traveller, whose account appears to have been written A.D. 851, calls the Indian Ocean the Sea of Herkend, the Bay of Bengal being known to Oriental geographers as the Sea of Delarour, the Simes Magus of the ancients. Eastern writers frequently speak of the seven seas, which are exclusive of the Ocean, which they call Bab Mahit, and the Sea of Herkend

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and Delarour, the sea of Persia or Bussora (the Persian Gulf); the sea of Rotzuma, (Red Sea), so called from a town thought by Harris to be the Clisma of the ancients; the Sea of Roum or Constantinople, (the Mediterranean); the sea called Al Chozar, or the Caspian; and the sea of Pont, or Black Sea (Pontus Euxinus).

The last great voyage to the East before the visit of Marco Polo, is that of the Spanish Jew Benjamin, who started from Tudela in 1160, on a journey extending for a period of thirteen or fourteen years. In pages 136-143 of the translation made by Mr. Asher of Berlin, is the portion relating to his voyage in the Persian Gulf, in which the island of Kish (now called Kais or Kenn), and El Catif (still known as Kateef) are mentioned. As is observed by Mr. R. H. Major in the volume of the Journal of the Hakluyt Society for 1857, the voyage of Marco Polo before all others claims attention as regards the detailed observation by which it is characterized. "This account," as Sprengel observes, "was long the general Manual of Asiatic Geography throughout entire Europe, especially after the voyages of the Portuguese had confirmed many of his supposed rhodomontades." In company with his father and his uncle, natives of Venice, who had many years before made a trading journey to Tartary, Marco Polo started in 1271, and after travelling for three years and a half across Asia and encountering a variety of dangers and disasters, at length reached the court of Kublai, Grand Khan of that country. Marco became a great favonrite with the Khan, and was employed by him in several important missions to distant provinces. After a residence of seventeen years at the Court of Kublai, the three Venetians became extremely anxious to return to their native country, and at length obtained permission to accompany the ambassadors of a King of Khorassan, who had come to demand a princess of the Khan's family in marriage for their sovereign. The voyage occupied a year and a half through the Indian Seas, before they reached the court of this King, named Arghun. Thence they travelled to Constantinople, and finally reached Venice in 1295. On this return voyage, he proceeded to the Kingdom of Ziamba (Tsiampa), where he learned much of Great Java or Java, though he did not himself visit either that island or Borneo. He then sailed southward, and passing the small island of Pentan (Bentang) came to Java Minor, under which name he designates Sumatra. He appears then to have sailed along its coast through the Straits of Malacca to Seilan (Ceylon), noticing on his way the Island Angaman (Andaman Islands. After some stay at Mayabar which, however, must not be confounded with Malabar, but is the coast of Coromandel. He notices its fine cottons; also its various superstitutions, as the worship of the cow, the abstinence from animal food, the courtezans dedicated to the service of the temple, and the acts of voluntary self-sacrifice to their Gods, as well as the custom of

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females burning themselves after the death of their husbands. Then passing Cape Cormorin he sailed along the coasts of Malabar, where he notices the abundance of pepper and ginger; then along those of Guzerat and Cambaia, and so, across the Indian Ocean, home. In the course of his inquiries and explorations, Marco Polo took pains to make himself acquainted with the natural history and products of each country, and by his observations on the manufactures and navigation of different countries, he constantly shows his sense of what would be chiefly interesting to a maritime and commercial people like the Venetians. The commerce of India he found extended from the territories of Kublai Khan to the shores of the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea. He expatiates not only on the products of the countries, such as the palm, betel nut, and spices, but also of the topaz, the amethyst, and the emerald, of the sapphires of Ceylon, the diamonds of Golconda, and the rubies from the mountains of Thibet. He furthermore traces down as far south as the Island of Madagascar the nautical explorations of the Asiatics of the Middle Ages, and suggests to us an explanation of the reasons why those early navigators failed in discovering the southernmost point of Africa. "They cannot go," he says, "further south than this island and that of Zanguebar, because the current draws them so strongly towards the south that they cannot turn back again. The vessels from Maabar (Coromandel) take twenty days in reaching this island and three months in returning, so strong does the current lie towards the south and never has any other direction."

Nearly all our knowledge on the state of manners and civilization among the population of Further Asia is derived from the accounts of Mahomedan geographers and travellers, and at the head of the latter class, if pre-eminence be regulated by the extent of ground passed over, we may safely place Ibn Batuta. This indefatigable explorer started in the year of the Hegira 725, (A.D. 1324,) from his native city, Tangier, at the age of twenty-two or twenty-three, and continued for thirty years with unwearied diligence travelling about in distant countries. A valuable translation of these important travels, from the abridged Arabic manuscript copies in the Public Library of Cambridge, with notes on the history, geography, botany, antiquities, &c., of the countries visited, was made by Professor Lee, and printed for the Oriental Translation Committee, London, 1829, 4to. Ibn Batuta, who was a Moor by birth, and a doctor of the Mahomedan laws and traditions by profession, set out with the purpose of accomplishing the mission to Mecca, and proceeded by land towards Egypt. The account of the singular adventures derives interest from the details which he introduces, not only of the natural productions and agriculture of the country, but of the manners, institutions, and history of Hindostan, under the Affghan dynasties, which

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preceded for nearly 300 years the establishment of the Mogul power. He gives an historical retrospect, extending from the first conquest of Delhi by the Mahomedans in 1188, to the accession of the reigning sovereign, Sultan Mahomed, the son of Tughlak, in 1325, which, says Mr. Major, is especially valuable from the additional facts which it supplies, and the light thrown on many of the transactions recorded by Ferishta. This preliminary sketch is continued by the personal narrative of Ibn Batuta himself, whose fortune led him to India at the crisis when the unity of the Patan power (at all times rather an aristocracy of military leaders, than a consolidated monarchy) was on the point of dissolution, from the mad tyranny of Sultan Mahomed, which drove all the Governors of the provinces into open revolt, and led to the erection of independent kingdoms in Bengal, the Deccan, &c. On the arrival of an embassy from the Emperor of China, he accepted an appointment as one of the envoys destined to convey the gifts sent in return by Sultan Mahomed, and receiving his credentials and outfit quitted Delhi early in the year of the Hejira 743 (A.D. 1342). He had not advanced many days' journey towards the Court, when his escort was overpowered in a conflict with the Hindoos, his colleague in the embassy killed, and he himself, escaping with difficulty from his captors, made his way back, alone and on foot, to the presence of the Emperor. After renewing his equipments, he again set forward, and this time reached without molestation the distant port of Calicut, where the Chinese junks awaited the embassy. In this long and toilsome journey through Central India and the Deccan, he describes among other places through which he passed, the cities of Daulatabád, Goa, and Onor, on the coast, and confirms the statements of Marco Polo as to the maritime and piratical habits of the people, alleging, however, that they captured only those vessels which attempted to pass their ports without the payment of toll. The embassy remained three months in Calicut, till the monsoon enabled them to sail for China; but every stage in this mission was doomed to misfortune. While the envoys and the suite, with the costly gifts of which they were the bearers, were in course of embarkation in the port, a violent tempest arose, by which part of the Chinese squadron was driven on shore and wrecked; while the remaining vessels, on board of which Ibn Batuta's property and harem had already been embarked, were driven so far out to sea, that the captains, instead of returning to Calicut, made the best of their way to China. Batuta himself had accidentally delayed going on board; but his two colleagues perished in one of the stranded ships, and he was left with only his prayer-carpet and ten dinars, which he says, "I kept as a blessing, as they had been given me by some holy men." At length receiving intelligence that all his property had been confiscated on the arrival of the junks in China, he determined to

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resume his wanderings, and setting sail from Onor, arrived in ten days at the Zabiyah-al-Mohli, or Maldive Islands. "These islands," he says, "constitute one of the wonders of the world, for their number is about 2000, nearly 100 of which are so close together as to form a kind of ring. The people are religious, chaste, and peaceable; they eat what is lawful, and their prayers are answered. Their bodies are weak, they make no war, and their weapons are prayers." Their chief subsistence was on fish, rice, and the fruit of the cocoa-tree. The coir-rope, formed from the fibres of this tree, was their principal article of commerce, and a sea-shell, called wada, was current in lieu of coined money. On the arrival of Ibn Batuta in Ceylon, he visited the mountain of Serendib, the Adam's Peak of Arab geographers, which they had seen from the sea "like a pillar of smoke," at the distance of nine days' sail, and on the summit of which was the famous footstep attributed by tradition to Adam, and called by the Cingalese the footstep of Buddha. His stay in the islands of the Indian Archipelago was not of long duration, but he describes with accuracy and minuteness the clove, camphor, nutmeg, and other spices.

The only adventure which marked Ibn Batuta's voyage to Sumatra was the sight of a huge distant object in the air, which the sailors declared was a "rokh," the giant-bird alluded to in the narrative of Sindbad, for which many men of letters claim an authenticity that will astonish those of us who have always considered them as mere stories told by the fair Princess Sheherazade to the never-ending request of her sister Dinarzade: "Sister if you are not sleepy tell us one of those beautiful stories of yours." The learned Baron Walckenaer, in a paper read before the Académie des Belles Lettres, on the 23rd of July, 1831, and published in the Nouvelles Annales des Voyages, tome 53, p. 6, was by no means of the same opinion. Although the voyages of Sindbad the Sailor have been inserted in the "Thousand and One Nights," they form in Arabic a distinct and separate work, a translation of which into French was made by M. Langles, and published in Paris in 1814. The Baron Walckenaer ascribes to the voyages of Sindbad a date about coincident with that of Soliman, that is the beginning of the ninth century; and says Mr. Major, although, doubtless, these voyages may be imaginary when regarded as the explorations of an individual, they are not the less certainly based upon real facts within the knowledge of the Arabs of the time. The following is Sindbad's account of the rokh, regarding which some observations were published by R. Hole, in a work entitled, "Remarks on the Arabian Nights Entertainments." "Sindbad climbs a mountain, and beholds on one side nothing but skies and seas. On the other something white attracts his notice, and, on approaching to examine it, he perceives it to be a huge round bowl, about fifty paces in circum-

ference, with a smooth polished surface. The sun was now ready to set, and the sky suddenly grew dark, as if covered with a thick cloud. His surprise and terror was not diminished on perceiving that it was caused by the shadow of a stupendous bird, directing her flight towards him. He apprehends, and justly, that this was the winged monster of which he had heard the sailors talk, called the rokh, and that the huge white bowl was its egg. The bird descends, and sits on it in the act of incubation; Sindbad, who had crept close to the egg, being blessed with an admirable presence of mind, fastens himself to one of the bird's legs with the linen cloth which was wrapped round his turban. In the morning, agreeably to his hopes, the rokh takes her flight; and soaring above the clouds urges her course with such rapidity as almost to deprive him of his senses. She at length descends to the earth, he unties the knot with which he had fastened himself to her leg, and the bird soon afterwards picks up a monstrous serpent and flies away with it." If any one chooses to look into Bochart's Hierozoicon, vol. ii, p. 84, he may find a more extravagant account of this bird, extracted from Arabian authors, than what is here given by Sindbad. In Wilford's paper on Egypt and other countries, "Asiatic Researches," vol. viii., p. 343, we read:—"In the language of mythology the nagas or uragas are large serpents, and the garudas or supernas, immense birds, which are either the condors of M. Buffon, and vulture griffons of Linnæus, called rokhs by the Arabian fabulists and Marco Polo, or mere creatures of imagination, like the simorg of the Persians, whom Sadi describes as receiving his daily allowance on the mountain of Kâf. Marco Polo gives the following account of the rokh:—The people of the island of Magasta, now called San Lorenzo (Madagascar), report that at a certain season of the year, an extraordinary kind of bird, which they call a rokh, makes its appearance from the southern region. In form it is said to resemble the eagle, but it is incomparably greater in size, being so large and strong as to seize an elephant with its talons and to lift it into the air, from whence he lets it fall to the ground in order that when dead it may prey upon the carcase. Persons who have seen this bird, assert that when the wings are spread they measure sixteen paces in extent from point to point, and that the feathers are eight paces in length, and thick in proportion." Marco Polo conceiving that these creatures might be griffins, such as are represented in paintings as half birds and half lions, particularly questioned those who had reported their having seen them, as to this point, but they maintained that their shape was altogether that of birds, or, as it might be said, of the eagle. "The Grand Khan having heard this extraordinary relation, sent messengers to the island, on the pretext of demanding the release of one his servants who had been detained there, but in reality to examine into the circumstances of the country and the truth of the wonderful things

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told of it. When they returned to the presence of His Majesty, they brought with them (as I have heard) a feather of the rokh, positively affirmed to have measured ninety paces, and the quill part to have been two palms in circumference. This surprising exhibition afforded His Majesty extreme pleasure, and upon those by whom it was presented he bestowed rich gifts."

Sindbad also speaks of gigantic eagles, huge serpents, "the least of which was capable of swallowing an elephant," and an enormous tortoise twenty cubits in length and breadth. According to Ælian, tortoises (De Naturâ Anim., I. 16, c. 17) whose shells were fifteen cubits in length, and sufficiently large to cover a house, were to be found near the Island of Taprobana. Pliny and Strabo mention the same circumstance (Nat. Hist., I. 9, c. 10), and say that men used to row in them as in a boat (Geog. I, 16, 16). Diodorus Siculus adds to their testimony, and assures us, on the faith of an historian, that the chelonophagi (shell-fish eaters, L. 4, c. 1) derived a three-fold advantage from the tortoise, which occasionally supplied them with a roof to their house, a boat, and a dinner. Mr. Major recognises in this fabulous tortoise the Colossochelys Atlas, the first fossil remains of which were discovered, associated with the remains of four extinct species of mastodon and elephant, by Dr. Falconer and Major Cautley, in 1835, in the tertiary strata of the Sewalik Hills (or Sub-Himalayas,) skirting the southern foot of the great Himalaya chain. An idea of the vast size of this tortoise is afforded by the cast in the upper galleries of the British Museum, Of the later voyages to India, that of Nicolo di Conti, a Venetian, takes the lead both in date and importance. He proceeded from Damascus, where he resided as a merchant, down the Euphrates to Bussorah, and thence by Ormuz to Cambay. He crossed Southern India, visited Ceylon (Zeilam), the Andaman Islands, and Sumatra (which he mistakingly calls Taprobana), China (which he calls Major), Java, and Burmah. The Russian traveller, Athanasius Mikitin of Twer, also visited India in the years 1468-74. He proceeded down the Volga to the Caspian Sea, through Bokhara, and retracing his steps through Persia, to Ormuz, Choul (thirty miles south-east of Bombay), Bede (near Ahmedabad), whence he returned to Russia by Muscat, Ispahan, and Trebizond. A third voyage made in the 15th century, was by a Genoese, Heronimo de Santi Stefano, who proceeded from Cairo, to Ghennah, Cossire and Aden, to Calicut. He then sailed to Ceylon, Burmah, and Sumatra, thence returning by Cambay, Ormuz, Shiraz, and Ispahan, to Aleppo (see "Hakluyt's Society," volume for 1857).

On the 9th of July, 1497, Emanuel, who had succeeded his cousin on the throne of Portugal two years before, despatched Vasquez (or Vasco) da Gama on his memorable voyage with the 'Gabriel' of 120 tons, two other vessels, and a small store ship, the whole

carrying a complement of 160 sailors and soldiers. On the 20th of November Da Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and sighting on Christmas Day the land which he called Tierra de Natal, in honour of the day, he entered the port of Mozambique (in lat. 15° 15′) on the 1st of March, 1498. Here, many of his people died of scurvy, and after narrowly escaping destruction from the treachery of the natives, he sailed for Mombaza, in lat. 4° 4′ S., thence proceeding to Melinda,* where he met with great civility from the chief and people. Da Gama now struck boldly across the Indian Ocean, and on the 17th of May sighted the Malabar coast, and cast anchor at Calicut, where he was well received by the potentate known as the Zamorin. The Mahomedan merchants were, however, jealous of the Christian traders, and when we consider the result of this first visit to India by Europeans, we cannot feel surprised at the sentiment; and Da Gama consequently proceeded to the Island of Anjidiva in lat. 14° 45′ N., whence he sailed for Europe. On his way he touched at Melinda, where he took on board an envoy from the ruler to his Sovereign, and having burnt one of his ships, the 'St. Raphael,' commanded by his brother, Paul da Gama, owing to the paucity of his crew, proceeded to Zanzibar and Mozambique. On the 10th of March, 1499, he doubled the Cape, and proceeding thence to the Azores, arrived in September at Lisbon, where he was received with the utmost distinction by the King, who created him Count de Vidiguera, and conferred handsome gifts on him and his officers and men, of whom only sixty had survived, the remainder, including Paul da Gama, having fallen victims to sickness during this ever-memorable voyage.

King Emanuel now fitted out a second expedition of thirteen ships, having 1,500 men on board, which he placed under the command of Pedro Alvarez de Cabral, who sailed in March, 1500. On his passage out Cabral, in keeping to the westward, to avoid the storms, in which he lost five vessels, discovered that part of the South American coast now known as Brazil, which he called the Land of the Holy Cross, and of which he took possession in the name of his master. Having established a colony of twenty condemned persons, he sent back Gaspar Lamidos with the news, and sailed with eight ships, but soon after encountered off the Cape of Good Hope severe gales, in which he lost one of his ships, commanded by Bartholomew Diaz, who had first rounded that promontory. Continuing his voyage, Cabral arrived at Mozambique with only six sail. Having refitted his shattered ships, he visited Quiloa, or Keelwa, in lat. 8° 57′ N., and thence proceeded to Melinda, where he landed the native envoy, whom Da Gama had taken to Portugal, and then sailed for Anjidiva, where he

* Port Melinda or Melunda is formed by Leopard Reef (so called from H.M. ship 'Leopard,' flagship of Admiral Blankett) 2½ miles off shore and other reefs. Near to it, in lat. 3° 13′ S. is Vasco Da Gama's Pillar, so called after the great Portuguese navigator.

recruited. On the invitation of the Zamorin, Cabral visited Calicut, where he established a factory. Owing, however, to the injudicious conduct of his agent, one Correa, and his own overbearing disposition, he became involved in hostilities with the natives, who burnt down the factory and massacred the inmates, upon which Cabral made reprisals by burning ten ships and cannonading the town, after which he sailed for Cochin, some ninety miles distant. Here he was well-received by the native potentate. and having visited Cannanore, concluded a treaty with these princes and the ruler of Coulan; after which he embarked envoys from these States, and sailed in January, 1501, for Portugal. Near Melinda he lost one of his ships, but arrived at Lisbon with the remainder on the 23rd of July. Though he brought home a very rich cargo, the great losses he had suffered displeased the King. Meanwhile Emanuel had despatched two squadrons to Brazil of six ships, four of which were lost at sea, and a second to India of four ships, under Juan Nova Colleca, who arrived at Cannanore; and while on his passage to Cochin, encountered a fleet of eighty vessels sent by the Zamorin against him. After a severe action he sunk ten large ships, four barks, and other small vessels, and killed 400 men, and on his arrival at Cochin was received with open arms. Colleca then sailed for Portugal, and on his passage touched at St. Helena. The King now fitted out a fleet of twenty sail, which he placed under the command of Da Gama, who sailed from Lisbon in the spring of 1503. Da Gama first proceeded to Quiloa, the ruler of which he compelled to pay an annual tribute of 2,000 crowns to his master, and thence sailed to Cannanore and Cochin, where he was well received by the Native princes. At Cochin a deputation attended from the Christians of St. Thomas, to whom reference has already been made as having been visited by a missionary from our King Alfred, and he agreed to leave behind a squadron for their protection. As Gama was preparing to return to Europe with rich cargoes, he was attacked by a fleet of twenty-nine sail, sent against him by the Zamorin, but he defeated them with great loss, capturing two of the largest vessels. Da Gama having left behind him six ships under Vincent Sodrez, sailed for Lisbon, where he was received with acclamation. The Zamorin attacked Cochin, and forced the rajah and the Portuguese to take refuge on a neighbouring island, whence he was repulsed with heavy loss. As for Sodrez, he acted with great baseness; declining to take part in the defence of Cochin, he sailed for the Red Sea, for the purpose of acquiring plunder, but his ship was lost and he was drowned.

It now became the practice to send a fleet annually to the East Indies, and on the 6th of April, 1503, the two Albuquerques, Alfonso, the great Viceroy, then fifty years of age, and his cousin Francisco, sailed each in command of a squadron of three ships. The Albuquerques, reinforced by three ships Francisco met on the way, drove the Zamorin's garrison out of Cochin, and rein-

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stated the Rajah, who gave the permission to erect a fort near the town, which is the first occasion of the settlement of a European Power on the mainland. The Albuquerques now sailed for Europe with valuable cargoes, leaving Edward Pacheco behind with three ships, and a hundred and fifty men, and this gallant officer defeated every attempt of the Zamorin to recapture Cochin, for which on his return to Portugal, says an old writer, King Emanuel paid him the highest honours, and ordered one of the prelates in his kingdom to write a history of the war, which he transmitted to the Pope, and other Christian princes. As for the Albuquerques, Francisco sailed on the 5th of February with his three ships from Cannanore, but nothing more was ever heard of him or his squadron, but Alfonso who left Cochin on the 25th of January, 1504, first proceeded to Mozambique, doubled the Cape on the 1st of May, and arrived at Lisbon at the end of July with the remainder of the squadron laden with very rich cargoes.

Emanuel was now resolved to acquire the Empire of the Indies and for this purpose fitted out a fleet of thirteen large ships and six carvels, which he placed under the command of Don Francis Almeida, Count of Abrantes, with the title of Viceroy and Governor-General, the avowed object being the capture of Aden, Ormuz, and Malacca, by the acquisition of which he hoped to be paramount in the East. The fleet sailed from Lisbon onthe 25th of March, 1505, and Almeida, having captured Quiloa and Mombaza, built forts there, and also at Anjidiva and Cannanore. In 1506 Almeida's son, Lawrence, discovered the Maldive Islands, and also visited Ceylon and took possession of it in the name of his sovereign. Almeida now divided his fleet into two parts, committing one squadron to the care of his son, on his return from Ceylon, and placing the second under Emanuel Pugagno, and no ship was permitted to visit the ports of the Malabar coast without a pass from a Portuguese admiral or governor of a fort.

On the 5th of April, 1506, a fleet of fourteen ships sailed from Lisbon under the command of Tristan Da Cunha, Alfonso Albuquerque* being appointed second in the command, with six ships and four hundred men, with secret instructions, as appears in his Commentaries, that at the expiration of three years, he was to succeed Almeida as viceroy. On the voyage out they discovered the islands in South Atlantic, in 37° 6′ S. to which the name of Tristan Da Cunha was given. The ships were greatly scattered owing to the stormy weather, but Alfonso steered for Mozambique which he had discovered on his first visit to India, where he was joined by the admiral with the other ships, except those of Alonzo

* For a life of this great man see his Commentaries, translated by Walter de Gray Birch of the British Museum, from the Portuguese edition of 1774 which was compiled by his natural son Braz, from the despatches forwarded to Emanuel, King of Portugal. The English translation forms the volume of the Hakluyt Society for 1875.

Teleq, who proceeded to Melinda, and of Rui Pereira who visited the island of Madagascar, which was named St. Lawrence, after the saint on whose day it was first sighted. On the latter joining him with the news of his discovery, Da Cunha sailed with the fleet for the island, the southern portion of which he explored, and then returned to Mozambique. Having refitted his ships and sent Antonio de Saldanha with two ships to Portugal, that officer on the way discovering a watering place near the Cape, to which he gave his own name, the admiral sailed for Melinda, and then proceeded to Brava, which he attacked and secured. After some hard fighting at Brava, Tristan da Cunha was wounded, and at his own request was dubbed knight by Albuquerque, after which, we are told, he conferred a like honour on his son Kuno, and other hidalgoes. From thence the fleet proceeded to Mogadoxa and the island of Socotra, the Kisi of Marco Polo. At Tamirida, (called Coco in the Commentaries) where they anchored, the Admiral expressed his intention to construct a fort and leava a garrison under Albuquerque's nephew, Alfonso de Norinha, but the native chief refused permission, upon which an attack was made upon his castle, which was stormed after a desperate resistance; in the affair both Albuquerque and his nephew were wounded, and many men were killed. Da Cunha now built a fort ostensibly for the protection of the Christians,* and placed Alfonso de Norinha in command, and on the 1st of August, 1507, sailed for India with four ships, leaving six behind under command of Albuquerque, "and this not without many tears on either side," says the chronicler. Having taken in cargoes, Da Cunha sailed for Portugal, where he arrived in safety, and his exploits on the East African Coast, both as an explorer and conqueror, have been immortalised by Camoens, in his celebrated poem of the "Lusiad."

NOTES ON THE HISTORY AND SERVICES OF THE EIGHTY-SIXTH REGIMENT OF FOOT (*Continued.*)

The Eighty-Sixth Foot from 1793 to the present time.

On the 23rd of June, 1795, the leading ships of Lord Bridport's fleet came up with the enemy off L'Orient about break of day, and an action ensued lasting till nine a.m., and resulting in the capture of the French line-of-battle ships, 'Alexandre,' 74, 'Tigre,' 80, and 'Formidable,' 74. The rest, after experiencing heavy loss, escaped under the batteries of Port L'Orient. Owing

* Marco Polo says:— "The people are all baptized Christians, and they have an archbishop." Abulfeda writes that the people of Socotra were Nestorian Christians and pirates, and Nicolo Corti who spent two months in the island early in the fifteenth century, says it was for the most part inhabited by Nestorian Christians.

perhaps, to the French practice of firing high, the casualties in 118th, serving as marines, appears to have been proportionately large. No casualties are recorded on board the ships carrying the 86th detachments.

In his despatch to the Admiralty, dated 24th of June, 1795, Lord Bridport observes that "when the French ships struck, the British squadron was near to some batteries and in front of a strong naval port, which will manifest to the public the zeal and skill of the admirals, captains, and all other officers, seamen and soldiers employed upon this service, and they are fully entitled to my warmest acknowledgments."

For this action also the thanks of Parliament were unanimously voted to all engaged.

The survivors of the two engagements above-mentioned—Cornwallis' and Bridport's—were awarded a clasp for each action when the naval war-medal was issued fifty years later.

On the 24th of June, the 'Triumph' and 'Brunswick' returned to Torbay with the rest of Admiral Cornwallis' squadron, starting again on the 5th of July for a cruise in the Atlantic. Lord Bridport, with the Channel Fleet, including the 'Prince of Wales' and 'Prince,' continued cruising in the Channel.

The 'Hector,' 74, Captain R. Montague, and 'Saturn,' 64, Captain Jas. Douglas, had left Spithead in the spring with a squadron under Rear-Admiral Mann, which after touching at Gibraltar, had joined the Mediterranean Fleet, under Admiral Hotham off the south end of Minorca, proceeding with it to Corsica. On the 8th of July, 1795, the British Fleet, including the two above-mentioned ships, left the Bay of San Fiorenzo, in Corsica, and on the 12th of July, during a heavy gale blowing from the Gulf of Lyons, had a partial and indecisive engagement with the French Toulon fleet off the Hyeres Islands, for which Admiral Hotham was afterwards rewarded with a peerage. After the action, the British Fleet returned to San Fiorenzo Bay, and the 'Hector,' soon afterwards, returned home in charge of convoy, and served in the Channel and North Sea, during the remainder of the commission. The 'Brunswick,' 74, was also employed, under Admiral Duncan, in the North Sea.

The ships under Lord Bridport and Admiral Cornwallis continued cruising in the Channel until the latter end of the autumn of 1795, when most of them returned to port to refit, and the detachments of acting-marines joined the head-quarters of the regiment which had been stationed at Newport, Isle of Wight, where it had been inspected and received the approval of H. R. H. the Duke of York, and subsequently moved to Portsmouth and Hilsea for the winter.

In October, 1795, the companies were ordered to be made up 100 rank and file each. Mr. Cannon, in his *Historical Records*, states this to have been effected by drafts from the 118th and

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121st Regiments, which were broken up about the time, the men of the last-named corps having just come out of French prisons. No doubt, this statement is correct; but no mention of the fact occurs in the disbandment-roll of the 118th, from which it would appear that the regiment (like the 2nd battalion 90th, and one or two other young corps,) was transferred bodily to the Marines.* The muster-rolls of the 86th for this and the succeeding year show the regiment to have received numerous drafts, the sources of which are, for the most part, not specified. Amongst others, a draft was received from Captain Grant's Independant Corps, a corps of which no particulars have been found.

Early in the year 1796, the 86th Regiment was augmented to twelve companies, two of them being recruiting companies. About the same time, it was ordered to Nottingham, but, subsequently, counterordered to Guilford, whence, after a brief stay, it returned to the Isle of Wight.

In the summer of 1796, the regiment embarked for the Cape of Good Hope, and landed in Table Bay on the 22nd of September, just six days after Cape Town had surrendered to Sir Alured Clark.

On the 30th of Dec., the same year, the 'Saturn,' 64, which had been actively employed with the squadron from Corsica under Rear-Admiral Mann, watching the Toulon fleet, and afterwards on the coasts of Italy and Spain, arrived home with convoy from Gibraltar and the Tagus, and was paid off. The 86th detachment, consisting of two lieutenants, one sergeant, two corporals, one drummer and sixty-four privates, which had served in her as marines up to this time, were landed, but their ultimate destination is not recorded.

During the two succeeding years the regiment remained at Cape Town, receiving in that time numerous drafts from the old 95th (Edmeston's), one of the regiments which served at the capture of the colony, and was subsequently broken up there, and others. Service-matters in the Cape command, in the year 1797, appear to have been in a very strangely unsatisfactory state. Lord Macartney, the Governor, was highly unpopular with his subordinates. Among the military, the most unseemly squabbling was rife among the higher grades of officers, and regimental discipline

* The 118th Regiment of Foot, which in some of the public prints of the day is designated the "Fingal" regiment, but appears to have borne no official title besides its number, had been raised in Ireland in 1794 by Colonel J. Talbot. After serving at various stations in England it had been drafted on board the Channel fleet, to serve as Marines, and was broken up when relanded in the autumn of 1795.

The 121st (County Clare) Regiment of Foot had also been raised in Ireland in 1794, by Colonel F. Macnamara. The greater portion of the regiment had been captured by French cruisers when on passage from Ireland to Liverpool in the spring of 1795. A detachment, which escaped, was quartered at Durham until the remainder having been released by an exchange of prisoners, the regiment was broken up as stated above.

was indifferent, owing, no doubt, in part to the constant "drafting;" whilst, in the naval squadron, the spirit of mutinous discontent which had manifested itself elsewhere, became ominously apparent. During the month of October, the ship's company of the 'Tremendous,' 74, rose on their officers, and the delegates threatened to try the commander, Captain G. H. Stephens, on charges of cruelty and misconduct. The mutineers soon, however, returned to their duty. Captain Stephens, considering that the charge of cruelty and misconduct reflected on his honour, then applied for a court-martial, which was held on board the 'Sceptre' in Table Bay. The court, finding nothing to incriminate Captain Stephens, broke up. It had not, however, been long dissolved before the crews of the 'Sceptre' and other ships of war broke out into the most violent acts of disobedience. A council was held on shore, under the presidency of the Governor, and it was resolved at once to bring the ringleaders to punishment. The garrison was instantly placed under arms, the batteries on shore manned, and over 100 pieces of cannon (so contemporary accounts assert) were pointed at the 'Tremendous.' as the most refractory ship, with the threat of firing red-hot shot into her from the Amsterdam battery, abreast of which she lay, if the delegates and ring-leaders were not given up. A proclamation was issued at seven a.m., giving the mutineers two hours to decide. Ten minutes before the expiration of the appointed time, a signal of submission was hoisted on board the 'Tremendous,' which was followed by the other ships. The ring-leaders were tried, some were executed, some flogged through the fleet or otherwise punished.

On the very morning when the yellow flag was flying in Table Bay for the execution of the culprits, a convoy of East Indiamen arrived, bringing, amongst other passengers, the *cadres* of the 71st Highlanders, under command of Colonel, afterwards Sir David Baird, the regiment itself having been drafted, after the manner of those days, to regiments still serving in India, and the officers and staff sent home. When the homeward-bound Indiamen resumed their voyage, Colonel Baird was detained at the Cape with the rank of brigadier-general, and appointed to a brigade at Cape Town.

The late General Middlemore, then a captain in the 86th, has left an interesting account of the reforms brought about in a very short time by the new brigadier's example. He writes:—

"General Baird, soon after his arrival at the Cape, was appointed to the command of a brigade composed of the 86th and Scotch Brigade,* each 1,000 strong, and both remarkably fine bodies of men. This brigade he employed himself in drilling on the new (Dundas') system.

"These young regiments required a master's hand to perfect

* Afterwards the old 94th of Indian and Peninsular fame.

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their discipline, and we (86th) had the good fortune to form part of the brigade.

"By some mischance we happened to labour under the ban of an ill-name, and it must be admitted that we felt somewhat uneasy, not to say indignant, under the constant animadversions of our superior, but the very idea of becoming one of Brigadier Baird's regiments roused us into zeal and energy. His open, manly, kind manner soon won our hearts, and could you have seen a body of men levelling before them, at his command, a whole wood, to form a field of exercise, you might have judged the effect of a stimulus given to exertion by the voice of authority, when mingled with encouragement and approbation.

"We were placed in a perfect wilderness, and, until he taught us first to laugh at difficulties, and then to surmount them, had despaired of ever having ground to work upon; but he instructed us how to use and yet husband our strength by mingling judgment with labour, and in a week we had changed the whole face of the country, and, assisted by his constant presence and cheerful praise, had formed a regular and excellent parade,* where a few days before was a forest. which had stood undisturbed for ages.

"Our intervals of labour and time of relief from hard work and hard drills were occupied in hunting, a diversion to which our chief was extremely partial, and on these occasions we were favoured by invitations to his hospitable table.

"Our review was excellent. The Commander-in-Chief was delighted to witness our great and rapid improvement. Nor was ours the only regiment that became perfect in order and appearance under General Baird's care and abilities. The whole brigade was in the highest state of discipline, and every man that served in it gloried in belonging to General Baird."

The position of affairs in India, requiring further reinforcements there, the 86th embarked at Cape Town in February, 1799, "a splendid body of men 1,300 strong," and landed at Madras on 10th of May following. The fall of Seringapatam rendering their services there unnecessary, the regiment, after a month's rest, was sent round to Bombay, where it arrived on 22nd of July.

Detachments of the regiment, under Major Bell and Captain Richardson, were despatched by sea from Bombay, to occupy the Dutch factories at Surat and Tannah, but were withdrawn again in December of the same year.

Early in 1800, three companies of the regiment were sent from Bombay to Ceylon, to take part in an expedition fitting out at Trincomalee, for an attempt on Java and Mauritius. This force was composed of the 10th, 80th, 88th, seven companies of the 19th, three companies of the 86th, some Native infantry and Honorable East India Company's artillery. Baird and Arthur

* Since the garrison parade ground, Cape Town.

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Baird and Arthur Wellesley both were named for the command, but the expedition never started.

In December, 1800, a squadron under Admiral Blanket, having on board the grenadier and light companies with one battalion company of the 86th, mustering together 250 men, 50 Honorable East India Company's artillery, and some Native infantry, the whole under Colonel Lloyd, of the 86th, was despatched from Bombay for an attack on Suez. The Admiral reached Mocha about the middle of January, where he stayed two days to take in provisions, and arrived at Jeddah in the beginning of February, from whence his squadron was nearly three months attempting to beat up to Suez, where they did not arrive until the latter end of April. The town was occupied without opposition, the French, under Junot, having abandoned it some days before. Water had run short in the Red Sea, and fever had broken out and carried off many soldiers and seamen. Hearing of the British successes in Egypt, Colonel Lloyd asked permission to join the force acting against Cairo, which was granted. The results are told in Sir Robert Wilson's "Narrative," in the following words:—"At 6 p.m., 7th June, 1801, Colonel Lloyd began his march with an allowance only of three pints of water per man for forty-eight hours, and from the leaky state of the skins even that quantity could not be ensured. Arab sheikhs were the guides the Grand Vizier had furnished and made responsible for the safe passage of the detachment. The distance from Suez to Cairo, in a straight line, is not more than fifty-eight miles, but the conductors, fearing that the French might intercept the detachment, had informed Colonel Lloyd that a detour of ten or twelve miles would be requisite. The day had been very sultry. The thermometer stood at 109 degs., which heat, as night drew on, diminished to 94. Before 9 p.m. three officers, Captain Cuyler, and Lieuts. Morse and Goodfellow, were taken so ill as to be unable to proceed. At 10 p.m., after a march of twelve miles, Colonel Lloyd halted for a couple of hours, when as the thermometer fell to 86, the troops moved again, and continued marching until 7 o'clock next morning. The day then became so intensely hot that Colonel Lloyd, contrary to his first intention, on account of the trouble and exertion necessary to load and unload the camels, ordered the tents to be pitched that the men till evening might find shelter from the sun. Twenty-six miles of the journey were calculated to be passed, which made the rest not altogether to be regretted.

"At 10 a.m. the guides came to Colonel Lloyd and acquainted him that the troops should immediately advance, as the day threatened to be extremely hot, and if the camels rested on the sand their limbs would soon be debilitated by the heat, and they would require water before they could move again; whereas, if kept advancing they would neither be affected by the burning ground nor the heat of the atmosphere in so fatal a degree; adding

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that they suspected the camel-drivers might steal the water when the soldiers were asleep, which they feared from the state of the skins would scarcely be sufficient.

"These arguments and the reflection that the guides being responsible for the men should have their wishes as much as possible complied with, determined Colonel Lloyd to proceed. The tents therefore were struck, and at 11 a.m. the march was resumed, the thermometer then being at 109. Captain Cuyler, who had previously joined in a very feeble state, fainted again and fell from his horse. A camel and two men were left to bring him on.

"About 1 o'clock, Colonel Lloyd finding the men were dropping fast to the rear, halted the detachment, and with the wish of affording relief to the fatigues and sufferings of the soldiers, cut off from the camels his own baggage, which example was followed by all the officers. As many men as could be carried were then mounted on the camels, and the whole proceeded! About 2 p.m. the thermometer rose to 116 deg., and at that time the *camseen* or south wind began to blow. The dreadful sensation of the atmosphere when the wind is in that quarter has previously been described, and here its effects were felt aggravated with every horror. Colonel Lloyd persevered until 4 p.m. when the state of the detachment obliged him to stop. Many officers and soldiers were seized with giddiness and loss of sight, while others fell down gasping for breath and calling-out for drink. On examining the skins it was found that the sun had cracked them, so that they leaked considerably, and the water remaining had become a very thick puddle and full of maggots. Necessity, however, required that this wretched drink should be distributed, and which the men swallowed with avidity. Vomiting and violent pains in the bowels were the immediate consequence. Colonel Lloyd, finding this, directed that no more should be issued. The officers had brought with them a certain quantity of Madeira wine, which they now divided among the soldiers. Some spirits were mixed with the remaining water, and each man had his proportion poured into his own canteen. The whole were then warned that every drop was in their possession, and that on their own prudence would depend whether or not they should be enabled to accomplish the rest. The residue of the spirits was then spilt on the ground, Colonel Lloyd dreading the temptation might produce fatal consequences.

"These arrangements occupied the time till past 6 o'clock, when the wind died away, and as the sun declined, the air became more temperate. Colonel Lloyd supposes that the thermometer (he had unfortunately lost his own when the baggage was cut away,) must have risen in the course of the afternoon to 140. The wine had considerably refreshed everybody, yet still a langour pervaded the whole. At 7 p.m. the order for marching was given. Seven-

teen men, unable to travel even on the backs of camels, were left on the ground, and with them camels that they might follow in a couple of hour's time.

"After marching six miles (in which several officers and men, also Colonel Lloyd, felt the extraordinary sensation of seeing horses, camels, and all kinds of animals constantly moving with the rapidest transition before them, which false perception they could not correct), at 11 p.m. the detachment halted again. The night was exceedingly dark and every one so fatigued that inconquerable sleep seized upon all, during which the Arabs contrived to steal, among other things, a trunk containing money. At 4 a.m. the guides awoke Colonel Lloyd, and the soldiers formed with difficulty into order of march, as a very heavy dew had fallen during the night, and their limbs were so benumbed with cold that they could scarcely move. The 17 men left behind had not joined; but as the soldiers complained of great drought and thirty miles of desert still separated them from the springs, Colonel Lloyd did not think it desirable to lose the advantage of a cool morning by waiting for the party. The *camseen* began again at the same hour as the day before; the soldiers, however, were not affected in the same severe manner. By great perseverance, notwithstanding the entreaties of many to stop, Colonel Lloyd between 4 and 5 p.m. the same day reached the springs of Elkanah, and the joy of the people was naturally very great; there had been some stragglers, but by 8 o'clock p.m. all the camels came up, and by night all the men who from giddiness had fallen to the ground.

"The soldiers were not guilty of excess in drinking water at the springs, which it was feared would have been the case, but two officer's horses, breaking loose, drank till they died on the spot. What must have been the sufferings of those animals, deprived of food and water from the evening of the 6th to the evening of the 8th, during the greater part of which time their lungs were only inflated with fiery air. No man had tasted a morsel of anything after quitting Suez, but food would rather have increased the drought, and under this idea all rations of salt pork had been thrown away the first morning. It was impossible to buy fresh meat, none was procurable in Suez; neither would it have kept three hours on the march.

"The course of the first forty miles had been NN.W. over hard sand, and the last thirty miles N.W. by N., of which the first ten were over rising ground, and the last twenty in very deep heavy sand. During the whole march no vegetation whatever, no bird or beast had been seen.

"During the day of the 9th of June, eight out of the seventeen men left behind joined; the remainder have never been heard of. As Cairo was only twelve miles distant, Colonel Lloyd halted till dark at the springs, not presuming, with so small a force, to run

the risk of discovery. After marching all night, about 11 a.m. on the 10th of June, the detachment joined the Grand Vizier's army, encamped before Cairo, and pitched their tents with Colonel Stuart's brigade.

"Never were soldiers in a more pitiable condition; for, in consequence of the plague, they had been obliged to burn all their uniforms before leaving Suez, and on the march had lost their knapsacks, but being uncommonly fine-looking men their appearance excited great interest. Captain Cuyler, who had got back safe to Suez, joined on the 16th of June, also Lieutenants Morse and Goodfellow; they had crossed the desert with a caravan bound for the interior."

On the 22nd of June Cairo surrendered, and on the 16th of July following, the detachment of the 86th, and some companies of the 89th, occupied the citadel.

Soon after the departure of Admiral Blanket's force from Bombay, the three companies of the 86th at Ceylon had returned to Bombay and joined the force under General Baird destined for Egypt, the remaining four companies of the regiment being left still at Bombay.

The main body of General Baird's force, after considerable delays in the Red Sea, reached Cossir on the 8th of June, 1801, the day after Colonel Lloyd's detachment had quitted Suez. The advanced had arrived a few weeks previously. On landing, General Baird, with the 86th companies, pushed on to Keneh, on the banks of the Upper Nile, making arrangements on his way for the rest of the troops to follow. The distance, 120 English miles, was divided into easy stages; stores were formed at the several posts; relays of camels secured and placed to ensure regular supplies of water; wells were cleared out or dug. Thanks to the completeness of the arrangements, the troops were collected on the banks of the Nile without casualties of any kind. From Kenneh the Anglo-Indian army descended the Nile in native boats to Cairo, arriving there at the end of July, and encamping on the Isle of Rhonda, where the six companies of the 86th were united.

Dr. Clark, the well-known traveller, who visited Egypt at this time, gives the following account of the camp:*—

"The Indian Army, under General Baird, was encamped on the Isle of Rhouda (*sic*), and presented the finest military spectacle that it is possible to conceive, offering a striking contrast to the appearance of the troops from England, who were encamped on the Alexandrian Plain. The Indian Army, in possession of abundant supplies, and having all the comforts that wealth and power could bestow, might be considered rather as an encampment of the mightiest princes than of private men. The tents of its subalterns were superior to the marquees of the general

* Dr. Clarke's Travels, Part II. Sect. 2, p. 65.

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officers in the English Army, where the Commander-in-Chief lived as the poorest soldier, and wretchedness and privation were the order of the day.

"Every morning, at sunrise, as in Lord Hutchinson's army, a gun was fired and the whole line of the troops from India was under arms, amounting to some 3,000 men. At this hour we often resorted to the Isle of Rhouda, to view the magnificent parade. An immense grove of the most enormous sycamore-fig trees, larger than any of our forest trees, screened almost the whole army from the rays of the sun. Troops in such a state of perfection and better fitted for active service were never seen, not even in the famous parade of the ten thousand belonging to Bonaparte's Legions, which he was so vain of displaying, before the present war, in front of the Tuileries, at Paris. Not an unhealthy soldier was to be seen. The English, innured to the climate of India, considered that of Egypt as temperate in its effects, and the Sepoys seemed as fond of the Nile as of the Ganges. After General Baird had inspected the line, the Sepoys were marched to Cairo, where, having piled their arms in front of one of the principal mosques, they all joined the Moslems in their devotions, to the surprise and delight of the Turks and Arabs, who quickly circulated a report over Cairo that the English Army was filled with soldiers belonging to the Faithful. These men were all volunteers, and no instance had ever occurred of their being conveyed so far from their native land at any former period.

"A dinner given by General Baird to all the English officers and others of our countrymen at Cairo, took place while the camp remained on the Isle of Rhouda. We were invited, and the scene was so extraordinary that it ought to be noticed. The dinner was given in the pavillion before-mentioned, this was lighted by glass lustres suspended from an enormous bamboo-cane sustaining the inner covering of the tent, and by wax candles in glass cylinders. English porter, roasted pig, and other English fare, together with port, claret and madeira, appeared upon the table. The dinner was cooked by Indian servants upon the sand near the tent, and a view of the extraordinary cleanliness observed by these cooks, as well as their peculiar habits, were among the most curious parts of the exhibition. Having drawn a line round them, they suffered no one to pass the boundary. The rules of their caste enjoined that the cooking-vessels should be touched by none but their own hands. After dinner the officers smoked the *hookah*, every pipe having its particular attendant outside the tent, the long flexible tubes being alone brought under the sides of the tent to those seated at table. The servants were chiefly negroes dressed in white turbans and muslin jackets, but without stockings or shoes. The upper part of the pavillion was adorned with beautiful network, the hangings were made of green silk, and the floor covered with Indian mats. The tables were of polished mahogany, and the

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company present in full uniform—an association of things so incongruous with the natural horrors and barbarism of the country. Upon the borders of an interminable Desert, and in the midst of such a river as the Nile, more persons from England and India were met to banquet together, that perhaps no similar result of commerce and of conquest is likely ever to occur again in any part of the habitable world."

(*To be continued.*)

CAVALRY HORSES, AND HOW TO FORAGE THEM.

The graphic pen of Tacitus has taught successive generations of men how reverence for the horse formed part of the religion of those warlike tribes which were encountered by Germanicus and Varna in the forests of Northern Europe. Horses, in their opinion, were as far superier to men as the gods were superior to the horses, and it was to the animals they went for that information of the future which then was so perseveringly sought after. The priests, while considering themselves ministers of the gods, looked upon the sacred horses as those to whom the gods revealed their secrets. So the neighing and movements of horses were carefully observed, and the omens drawn from them were received with reverence and faith by, not only the people, but also by the chiefs and priests.

And it was in accordance with the belief in this supposed intimacy that northern mythology assigned to each of the deities a horse of wonderful size and strength. Odin's horse Slapnir, was eight-footed and, consequently, the fleetest and best of the equine race. Gullfaxi, the golden-maned, Skinfaxi, the glittering-maned, Hrinfaxi, the dewy-maned, were the steeds on which, respectively, rode the giant Hrûngnir, the day-god, and the god of night, while Arvakr, the early-awakener, and Alsvidh'r, the all-wise, drew the chariot of the sun. As the Brahmins worship the buffalo, so did these Norsemen adore the horse.

According to tradition, one of the northern kings possessed a horse that knew whether victory or defeat awaited its master. Its name was Dulceful, and is alleged to have been as swift as a bird, as strong as a lion, and as fierce as a wolf. When the king declared war on one occasion against another of the sea-kings, Dulceful refused to be caught, and escaped to the woods. This omen its master disregarded, and, of course, met with defeat. On another occasion the intelligent animal seeing its master preparing for battle, came on its own accord to be saddled, and, by its conduct in the field, greatly contributed to the victory its readiness to attend had foretold.

Therefore, we find that from time almost immemorial, horses

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have taken a most active part in warfare, and, although in these more mundane days, we do not worship our chargers, still their value on a campaign has not, in our opinion, at all decreased. As regards their worth from a pecuniary point of view, that has increased and is increasing, and if it continues to do so for the next one, in a similar proportion to what it has done in the present century, the animal will, at least in a monetary sense, be worshipped as much as in the days of the hardy Norsemen.

The price given in the purchase of horses, however, is but a first expense—and, comparatively, a small one, to the after-cost of their keep. Our cavalry and artillery-horses cost, on an average, forty-four pounds a piece, but, when the expense of stables and forage is taken into consideration, that sum would not represent one year's outlay. Therefore we find large trading companies, as well as governments, endeavouring to economise in respect of forage for the animals, and at present, interesting experiments are being made in the French Cavalry, as to the practibility of feeding troopers upon forage biscuits in lieu of oats. For this experiment, twelve cavalry and six artillery regiments, as well as six transport squadrons, have been selected in each arm, the experiments being made under the supervision of a committee of the corps, consisting of a chef d'escadron, a first-class captain, a lieutenant, and a veterinary surgeon.

Before being subjected to the new diet, the horses are weighed and measured, their general state of health is taken down, as well as their antecedents in that respect, and their strength. In certain portions of each arm only, the ration of oats is replaced by that of the forage biscuit; in others, the horses are fed entirely upon the biscuits, only straw for litter being used. Each biscuit weighs sixty grammes, and, as the full ration consists of thirty-two biscuits to the transport and artillery horses, and twenty-six to those of the cavalry, the total weight of the biscuit ration is about 7½ lbs. and 6½ lbs., respectively. For the first ten days the horses are gradually accustomed to the new food, and are then fed for another eight days upon it, and while this is being done, the work gone through daily, the increase or otherwise of weight, state of health, and other matters of importance, are duly noted. A report of the results will afterwards be submitted to the Minister of War.

Should the experiment prove a beneficial one, it will be economically a great success, as the expense by the new system cannot be much more than half what it is at present. Still we doubt if horses that were fed all the year round on one description of food, would enjoy as good health generally, as others who had what we may term a change of diet. It would be necessary, in our opinion, to give green forage or bran, at least twice a week, to horses living otherwise entirely on biscuits. Horses, we should add, are rather conservative in their tastes, not taking to a new food

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readily. When, for instance, the 10th Hussars came in 1855 from India to the Crimea, a supply of gram was brought with them for their horses, enough to last until they got to Egypt, where barley was served out as the ration. The animals, for a day or two, would not touch the barley, to them new food, but afterwards seemed to like it quite as well as the forage they had been so long accustomed to, for, when the regiment reached the seat of war, where oats were only to be had, the horses displayed a similar aversion to this ration, as they had previously shown to the barley. The dislike, however, only lasted, in each case, until they got very hungry.

The French Government cannot, however, be credited with having set the example of making enquiries into the practicable advantages of different methods of feeding horses. We find from a book recently published that M. Bixio, the President of the Board of Directors of the Paris Cab Company, has for the past five years been giving his study to the subject. As this experience has been derived from attentively examining and keeping a daily record of the food consumed, work done, and general health of 10,000 horses during the time named, the value of such a work will at once be perceived: although some may consider the animals have been dieted and exercised more by a mathematical than by a physical regimen. It must however be allowed by all that some foods possess a greater degree of nourishment than others, and that in regulating the quantities of azotic, carbonic, or proteine elements entering into the food we supply our horses with, whether at work or not, we should not be guided exactly like our forefathers, by "rule of thumb."

M. Bixio says in his preface, "Employing a motive power in the form of a horse, our first object in giving him food is to maintain his vital (or working) power. Therefore we should only feed him so as to produce a certain amount of work." From this the author rightly infers that a horse in a stable at rest, not only needs less food than when at work, but food of another kind. On the one hand much has to be created, repaired and replaced. On the other hand the necessary quantity of flesh for the production of work has only to be furnished. "Thence we have," he continues, "two distinct questions. 1, What are the substances in food which tend to create muscle and to replenish it? 2, What are those required simply to produce work? As azotic elements are indispensable for the creation of muscle, they therefore play a prominent part in feeding. Again, the contraction of muscles, which produces a certain amount of work gives rise, so they say, to disengaging carbonic acid, which indicates carbonized elements as necessary. We must therefore find the relation existing between the azotic and carbonic elements so as to feed a horse under favourable conditions." "In old times the horse's rations varied from 13 to 20 lbs. for oats; 2 to 11 lbs. for hay, and a like quan-

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tity for straw, including litter. After the war in 1871 we were forced to buy a different class of horse; small ones for our clarences, and another kind for all other carriages. From the 20th June, 1871, we established two rations; namely, hay, 5½ lbs., straw, 6½ lbs., and oats, 13¼ lbs. The bigger animals had the same allowance of hay and straw but 1¼ lbs. of oats more, which upon the issue of 1870, was a saving of 8 oz. of hay and 2 lb. 3 oz. of straw to each horse, and of 2 lbs. 13 oz. and of 4 lbs. of oats respectively."

Other experiments were made, all of which M. Bixio tells us met with great opposition from the staff of servants, who would not fall into the views of the directors.

M. Thiébaut, the Veterinary Surgeon of the Company, had in 1862 discovered that horses worked better without hay than with it, each horse requiring however a larger quantity of oats; the reason of this being that the animals secret so much more saliva when eating hay than they do chewing oats, which overloading the stomach indisposes them for fast work. The experiment lasted thirteen months, and the report ended with the statement "that the horses had not been injured," while upon the whole a saving in cost had been effected. Indian corn had been tried both in Paris and in London at this time with indifferent result, so after further consultation M. Bixio and his fellow-directors came to the conclusion they had the two following problems to study:

"1. On what basis should a horse's allowance be established? What elements are we to take into account?

"2. Can we not substitute, without inconvenience, certain kinds of food, equal in nourishing qualities, and cheaper than those we use at present?"

It would occupy more space than we can spare to give M. Bixio's statement in full, we can consequently only give an epitome of it. Having looked at the different kinds of food that could be used in place of oats, beans were first selected on account of their less price and greater richness in azotic properties. Commencing in 1872 with small daily doses of beans, these were gradually by December, 1873, increased from 5 oz. to 2 lbs. 3 oz. per ration, which resulted in a saving of 1,200 francs (£48) per day. This was in a consumption of 11,800 tons of oats yearly, a quantity which under the new scale fell to 10,500 tons, while the consumption of beans, &c., increased 600 tons. There being in September, 1874, a further rise in the price of oats, Indian corn and buck wheat was partly introduced, with the result that although oats, hay and straw had all risen in price, the dividend paid to the shareholders of the Paris Cab Company remained unaltered. In October, 1874, corn oil-cake, containing 12 per cent. of azotic matter, was used in the form of a biscuit and after some days' hesitation the horses took to it, and seemed to like it as well as the oats. The rations now took the form of beans, 2 lbs. 10 oz.; oil-cake biscuit, 2 lbs. 12 oz.;

and oats varying from 8¾ to 10½ lbs., according to the size and work of the animals.

The directors still met with continued opposition even from their own servants, but finding their horses kept all right in spite of an increase of work, which produced £3,700 more receipts than in 1873, they continued their experiments with the gratifying result that, although oats had rose in price, a dividend of 20 per cent. higher was paid to the shareholders in 1875 than in 1874. We therefore find that the horses of the Paris Cab Company cost less to keep and did more work on the new system than on the old, while the mortality does not seem to have been injuriously affected, but the opposite. On the latter points, M. Bixio gives the following information :—

"Having stated the economy made by changing the provender, let us examine results. Putting aside the years 1870-71 (Franco-Prussian War), we find our mortality to have been in 1865, 3·04 per cent.; 1866, 3·34; 1867, 4·61; 1868, 2·11: 1869, 2·55; 1872, 4·43; 1873, 3·00; 1874, 3·10; 1875, 3·44; 1876, 3·54. Our change in food began in 1873, yet the mortality in 1865 is greater than in 1873. The mortality in 1866 and 1875 differ little. In 1876 it is less than in 1867, and the two years made nearly the same receipts."

The Paris Omnibus Company appears also to have become alive to the fact that horses will do as much work and thrive as well, when fed partially upon Indian corn, this Company having saved £16,000 in 1876 by substituting maize for oats in the ration given daily to their horses that year.

Having an impression that the London Omnibus Company had likewise "gone in" for economy and Indian corn, we, on referring to their manager's last-issusd report, found our impression to be correct. Each horse, Mr. Church tells us, has a daily allowance according to the size and the work it has to perform, "of from 16 to 18 lbs. of crushed *Indian corn* and 9 or 10 lbs. of chaff, made of hay and straw cut up in proportion of 56 to 36 lbs., *i.e.* truss for truss. All the food is issued daily from two depôts, one at the East and one at the West end of the town. The *maize* is bruised or crushed in mills especially designed for the purpose. The chaff is cut up by steam-power. The fodder, after preparation, is mixed by machinery, packed in sacks, weighed, and sent out daily to each stable."

Here we have proof that the Omnibus Company of London has gone farther than either the Paris Cab Company or the Paris Omnibus Company; in short, our own people have found that horses can do as much work when fed upon maize, as they can when fed upon oats. But the economy did not stop at replacing oats entirely by maize. The high price of straw, for several years induced Mr. Church in 1876 to try to substitute sawdust, when it could be obtained at a certain price. The experiment showed that

hard-working horses would rest as well on sawdust as upon straw, with this advantage, that the dung can be more easily removed from the former than the latter. The drawback to sawdust is, that its value for manuring pasture-fields is not yet sufficiently recognized, but this difficulty is fast disappearing."

We are not informed by Mr. Church how much the saving amounts to yearly by substituting maize for oats, but if the Paris Omnibus Company economised the sum of £16,000 by only partially making use of the Indian corn, we can assume that the London Company's savings amount to three times as much, or £48,000 per annnm. But even if only the smaller sum is saved annually, it would be well worth the attention of the War Office authorities to discover whether Indian corn or the new ration-biscuit would not be a cheaper and a satisfactory substitute for oats.

Indian corn or maize much resembles *gram*, upon which all horses in the East Indies are fed. The biscuits, knowing yet so little of their composition, we cannot well form an opinion upon. We expect, however, they are a modification or an improvement upon the oil-cake supplied to cattle: Colonel Ravelli, of the Italian Army, has, we understand, lately invented a biscuit upon which horses can be fed. The experiments were made upon sixty-four horses, who were fed upon a ration which appears to have been 11 lbs. in one case, as against another of 6½ lbs. of biscuit and 11 lbs. of hay. A third trial was with 4½ lbs. of biscuit and 7½ lbs. of oats. All these rations appear to have been fairly successful, the committee who examined the horses subjected to the trials, being satisfied with the results. We shall probably return to the subject, as not only this, but the question whether cavalry-horses cannot be serviceable without being shod, are matters of such public importance, that too much light cannot be thrown upon them.

BOSNIA, HERZEGOVINA, AND ALBANIA.

Of a surety, Austria is beginning to discover that crooked paths are not straight, nor rough places smooth; and that the Serbian term, "Planina," does not mean a plain, but the height or top of a rough mountain. When Count Andrassy, two years ago, told Lord Salisbury that, on no consideration, would the Austrian Government enter or take possession of these countries, it is to be presumed that he did not then imagine that in so short a time he should do the one and attempt the other. With what success, remains to be seen, but this much may be said, that he has so managed his expedition as to bring himself into armed collision with that part of the population who alone were likely to be friendly

to Austria, namely, the Moslem gentry and proprietors of the country. They only would be impervious to the Russian cajolery and intrigues which will be largely exercised through Servia and Montenegro.

Taking all and all, Austria may be now said to have embarked in an enterprise which, without the slightest or most remote benefit to herself, will probably cost her thousands of men and millions of money. A sum likely enough to render her bankrupt and to bring about a dislocation of the Empire.

Russia with malice aforethought perceived all this, and acted upon her perception. She split up the Turkish dominion into little petty States, well knowing that when once the Ottoman authority was broken, all the alien and mutually hostile races inhabiting them would sink into a state of anarchy, which only her own military despotism could subdue; for, as we have seen, she has prepared a potion for Austria which will not only prevent *her* digesting the provinces she hopes to swallow, but will possibly produce a stoppage and death. Then she (Russia) hopes to succeed to her neighbour's effects and remains. This, rather than further action in Asia Minor and Syria, to which the Anglo-Turkish Convention is likely to prove a stumbling-block, will be probably Russia's line for some years to come.

Verily our Liberal leaders must have had this thought in their heads when they gave the encouragement we all know of to Russia in her iniquitous attack on a weak and friendly neighbour; though *their* hopes and wishes may have gone farther than those of their Divinity from the North.

Indeed, as the Spartan Ephor of old said, "The verbose oratory of philanthropic Liberals is hard to comprehend, they speak largely of their love to Man, but it will generally be seen that when a people differs either in government, religion or manners from the peculiar type of Mammonite worship that they affect, they have for them neither pity nor mercy."

In the present case, they hoped to see the expulsion (that is the extermination) of the Mohammedan population from Turkey in Europe, and possibly from Syria. Their clerics conceived the thought, for they have at times shown a desire to be united to the Oriental Church, and as we must suppose, to be under the august and holy control of the Emperor of Russia and the Patriarch of Moscow. The laics followed suite and assisted the charitable scheme to the utmost of their power, both by their endeavours to cripple their own government and by the open preference they displayed for their country's rival and possible enemy. But such is their manner; let any man, or sect, or nation, refuse to receive their religious or economic crotchets, and they hate him or them with an undying hatred.

Their friend, Russia, also condescends to use their cloak of cant and sentimental fustian, but it is somewhat too short for her, and

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cannot prevent the stalwart calves of violence and selfishness from being seen below it.

Having thus pointed to the predicament in which Austria stands by her unfortunate interference with her neighbours; to which, if Lord Salisbury counselled her, he showed that he did not quite understand the situation as well as his Russian fellow-diplomatists; we will consider the case of Albania. To whatever race or family of mankind the ancient Illyrians, the ancestors of the Albanians, may have belonged, whether they were Pelasgians, or Thracians, or Sclavonians, it is certain that the present race do not claim kindred with their Northern Sclavonic neighbours; neither are their languages, manners or character the same, save that in Montenegro a similar country has produced similar bands of robbers.

They somewhat more resemble the Greeks of the mountains of Acarnania and Ætolia, to whom doubtless they were in former ages allied by blood; these tribes having only a varnish of Hellenic manners and language. To the Greek people in general, they bear but slight resemblance. They are warriors and soldiers, predatory or otherwise, the Greeks are traffickers and seamen. The Albanians are brave, though boastful, the Greeks, bold in their way, but preferring the ways of craft to those of open violence. Between the two there is little love lost. The first regard their neighbours as sordid rogues, the Greeks look on *them* as savage barbarians.

Thus separated from the surrounding tribes, there is still a link of amazing strength which unites large numbers to some amongst them—that of Religion. A large and increasing number of the Albanians, amounting, it is said, to 1,000,000, are of the Mahommedan faith, and these, as those who really know the East would tell us, are the most respectable, bravest and most enterprising of the race. These men are thus allied, if not in race, in religion, with the Bosnian Moslems on the North, as well as with the Ottomans on the East; and a terrible thorn they are like to prove to Austria in the unlucky course she has entered upon. On any grounds, she ought to have kept on friendly terms with the Mohammedans, and now she has got into fierce conflict both with them and also with the Christians of the Greco-Russian Church, and that —it is given out,—by an undue and impolitic preference shown to the Catholics of the Church of Rome, who are not in numbers enough to be of any great assistance.

The difficulties under which Austria will labour in her dealings with these wild and martial populations will be prodigious, and will justify the old saying, that the Turks alone were able, though latterly in a somewhat inefficient manner, to keep them under one sceptre. I say latterly, for once upon a time it was not so; and "Duer paid than the Turks tribute," was a proverb in the days of Shakespeare. Even of late, that commanding genius with which Providence has gifted the Turkish and Tartar tribes of the Turanian family has at times been conspicuous. When the 5th Fusiliers

were stationed in the Ionian Islands, a gentleman who had travelled much in the East, described the following scene at which he was present, and which is a case in point:

The local Pasha was preparing an expedition, of which the Albanians were to compose by far the largest part, for the Pasha had not perhaps a score of Ottoman Turks with him. The Albanian Mountaineers were strutting about in their gay dresses, and boasting of the great deeds they had performed and were to perform, for they resemble the Scotch Highlanders in some other things beside their dress, being rather loud-voiced in their own praise, or, as it is delicately put in modern days, being somewhat self-asserting. While they were thus employed, the Turk and his immediate attendants, sat quietly smoking their pipes in serene self-confidence though surrounded by those who might perchance take it into their heads to cut their throats. But when the command was given, "Horse and away," they sprang into their saddles, and you saw that you had to do with men as brave, and more steady, than their blustering companions. Nevertheless, the Albanians are gallant fellows and excellent soldiers. They are the men who served with Nasmyth and Butler at the Siege of Silistria; and a great misfortune it will be for Austria if, as now seems probable, she be drawn into an attack on their rugged mountains, in addition to those of their co-religionists, the Bosnian Beys. Still worse will it be for Greece if she attempts the annexation of any part of their territory.

Really it almost seems a truth that the schemes of Russia and her Liberal friends alone can preserve the south-east of Europe from utter confusion, but utter confusion in that corner of the Continent is better than the handing-over of the whole Continent to Muscovite military tyranny, and therefore the schemes of Russia and the Liberals must be resisted.

I certainly did not in July imagine that the Berlin Treaty would so soon find us in such a situation as that in which we are now placed, and the complexion of affairs grows darker rather than lighter. As Austria advances in her ominous enterprise, the jealousy and ambition of Italy will be aroused. Already large classes, headed by that honest but foolish old sentimental merchant captain, Garibaldi (who, for men's sins, is allowed to appear as a great general and statesman to thousands) are clamouring for a war with Austria and a descent upon the Eastern shore of the Adriatic.

Well will it be for Italy if she renounces all such dangerous notions. If she confines herself to commerce and to music and statuary and painting, and thus revives the mediæval glories of the country. If she takes to canting about political preponderance and the destiny of the Latin race, she will presently see the Barbarians of the North again within her confines. Let her remember that at least half her population are not martial from their youth. The Samnites of 1878 are not as the Samnites of old. Moreover she

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has internal enemies. The Church is a perpetual menace to the present Kingdom, and every priest is at once a spy and a traitor in the bosom of the State. Add but to all this a foreign war, and the confusion which reigns in the East will extend itself to the central regions of Europe.

Having glanced at this sinister outlook, let us consider the position of England and France, before proceeding to that of the other powers.

I will repeat what I have urged in a former article. That Lord Beaconsfield's Government has placed us in an advantageous position in face of the dangers which threaten the world, and as to the action of evils from which it will be totally impossible for us wholely to escape, and to meet which it will require all our manhood.

As it becomes manifest that the Eastern Question is *not* settled; so it is equally manifest that blows only *can* settle it. Lord Beaconsfield has, by his Anglo-Turkish Convention and occupation, given us what we require, a fair stage and no favour. He has placed, or will place us in such relations with the inhabitants of a great territory as shall obtain for them justice and a fair system of taxation, and for us, an innumerable army of horsemen; such men as followed Hannibal and Maharbad from Africa, and Surena and Sillaces from beyond the Euphrates. Ill luck we shall deserve if we do not know how to handle them!

It is a sad thing that all this preparation should be a theme of rejoicing. But what in Heaven's name are we to do? We cannot prevent that which is to come. Nor will sitting still and making cotton goods increase our ultimate chance of repose and safety; it will only make us the richer and fatter prize for those who shall be the warriors and better men than ourselves. But let us not despair. I do not think that we shall, even in the days of the Goddess of Cant, suffer the selfish and sordid classes so to rule us as to make us submit as a lamb to the slaughter. Therefore I believe that England will play her part when the crash comes. Let us hope France will be equally ready. There can be little doubt but that she is recovering her spirits, fearfully lowered by the events of 1870. But her aspirations are all towards one quarter, and that, one where she can but do mischief. She also, like Italy, suffers under internal disease. She has parties who regard each other with an evil eye; but of this part of the subject we must speak at another time, and when affairs are further advanced. She has also that which Italy at pre ent has not, great riches and an inordinate love of wealth. One likely to provoke the appetite of neighbours in these days when wars have returned to the way of the Romans and are followed by contributions; the other leading the rich to undue submission to save their pockets.

The support of France is hardly so secure to the cause of Europe as it was twenty years ago.

We come now to a most serious and important question!

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What is, and what can be, the cause of that line of conduct which the German Government has been following since the beginning of the present complications? On all sides we hear of the countenance they give to Russia. Prince Bismarck makes threatening remonstrances to the Turkish Plenipotentiaries; a Commission enquires as to the atrocities committed in the Rhodope Mountains; the Russians, as might be expected, retire from it ere it is closed, the German Commissioner refuses to sign it. To Prussia also it is probably owing that the mouth of the Danube is so easily surrendered.

What does all this mean? It is impossible that it be in accordance with the wishes or feelings of the German people; for to them Russia is, and must be, the most dangerous neighbour, and the idea of making her invulnerable and invincible in the East can never be anything but fearful and detestable in their eyes.

Is it possible that the present action is dictated by the hope to use Russia's military aid against domestic foes?

If it is so, why then to all appearance the Government is leaning upon the staff of a bruised reed and trusting to Pharoah for chariots and horsemen. For Russia is itself afflicted with a like disease, and that, too, in a more virulent form; the peasantry being already, not theoretical, but practical Communists. Whilst amongst the lower grades of the officers of the army, the very class to whom military despotisms generally trust to uphold their power, ultra-revolutionary principles, called in Russia, Nihilism, are fearfully prevalent.

This may seem very strange, that the very men paid by the Government to support it should be its bitterest enemies. But I think the enigma may be explained; for it is very possible to conceive the feelings of hatred and rage, and fear and trembling, a Russian captain or subaltern must receive on a sudden order to appear before his Commanding Officer, or the General of the district or garrison to which he belongs. He knows not, when he enters that Orderly Room, what may happen to him; but he may go out of it a prisoner to the Caucasus or to the frontiers of China. Such are some of the phenomena witnessed at times in the Russia of to-day; and if Prince Bismarck has any notion of using her military power to assist him against the socialism of his own country, I cannot but think he is depending upon a rotten stick.

When we consider all these things, the more unpromising does the state of the civilised world appear. To what purpose do our Liberals exhort us to look to Russia as the creator and guardian of order, civilisation and progress in the East! when she has nothing to offer but perpetual war and conquest to keep her discontented military employed, or a Revolution before which that of '89 in France will have to hide its diminished head!

We have, apparently for the present, avoided a general European War. But no one can say but that a plentiful crop of troubles

and little wars both in the present, and of the future, have sprung out of the efforts we have made to avoid the great one. A question may arise, "What is to be done?" And some of the public prints have answered it in this way: "Destroy the Ottoman Empire entirely, for it can no longer control its limbs; and divide them amongst the Powers of Europe." The prospect is not a pleasant one. We have already said that the Turks did, after a sort, contrive to hold these provinces together. They were mutinous and rebellious, but they still acknowledged themselves the members of one central dominion. Now, tear them asunder and give one each to the surrounding nations and see what control their new masters will exercise over them! Moreover, the alteration in the different positions of the several Powers in this general scramble will be such as to sow the seeds of quarrels innumerable.

There remains the Liberal recipe; "Give the whole country to Russia." And doubtless she could crush the European portion into one mass as long as her present status continues; but when her revolutionary era arrives, what then? Are all these provinces to become little radical republics? Or is a great Asiatic tyrant to arise and subdue the whole of them? That would be the House of Othman over again, but with worse circumstances, as far as these countries are concerned, for at the present we have got the Ottoman Porte to the point at which they must grant their subjects a tolerably near approach to justice and fair treatment. Therefore, as far as I can see, good policy calls on Europe to maintain the Turkish Dominion, and not to allow any more of its component parts, especially those inhabited by Mahommedans, to be separated from it.

Some years ago an idea existed in the minds of many that when the Ottoman Empire came to its end, one or other of the subject races might assume the rule. Now, I presume we know better, having lately acquired a more intimate acquaintance with these races and their several capacities. Were one of the many Englishmen who have been in those countries during the last two years asked, which of the subject nationalities was fitted to succeed the Turks at Constantinople, that is, at the seat of Dominion? He would most probably answer, Neither: they are neither sufficiently numerous, nor powerful, nor enlightened, nor liberal in their religious sentiments. Nor have any of them that commanding character which has enabled the Turks to exercise authority over them these four hundred years.

Thus we remain in a predicament which those who understood the history of the world could have foretold when we allowed Russia to stir the smouldering fires of the East. Possibly she herself now repents her precise act, for she has gained no great immediate advantage and has but little to show her own people for all their sacrifices of men and money. But she has one consolation. She has seen that Power, upon which her basilisk eye has long been

fixed, involve itself in a sea of troubles, and those of a nature which will of all others most serve the Pansclavic ambition. If the Emperor must one day lose the Autocratism (if there is such a word) of Muscovy, it will be something to say that the Empire of Austria has fallen like that of Turkey, that the Sclavonian family are one, from Oldenburg to Kamskatcha, and that Moscow is their capital.

In relation to the question as to the conduct of Germany in so constantly backing Russia in all the late transactions, a most singular anecdote appeared a short time since in the *Times*. It appears that at an interview with Prince Bismarck by their Special Correspondent, the conversation turned upon the reported intention of Germany to have attacked France in 1875, if the latter did not at once discontinue the re-organization of her military forces. The Prince declared that no such intention had ever entered his head or that of any member of the Government; that the whole story was concocted and spread abroad by Prince Gortschakoff and the French Ambassador!

Well may we ask, In the name of good sense and policy what does all this mean? It may possibly be only a private dispute between the two Chancellors; but why Bismarck should make it thus public by taking the *Times* into his confidence, seems strange. The effect upon the Russian Government of thus exposing its traditional manner, must, we would think, be the reverse of soothing. Indeed the incident is of the most puzzling nature. One thing is tolerably apparent; that the policy of each Power is at this moment of the most uncertain and unstable character. Each one fears its neighbour and distrusts its own internal condition. Little is done with either wisdom or straightforwardness, and the only parties that know their own minds or have a fixed and permanent gaol at which they are aiming, are the Pansclavic Conspiracy and the Church of Rome. W. P. J.

EQUIPMENT REFORMS.

When Shaw, the Life Guardsman, was asked, prior to Waterloo, by some inquisitive friend "whether he would prefer going into battle with or without a cuirass?" the reply the interrogator received was, "without the cuirass certainly, in fact if I had my choice I should like to fight in my shirt sleeves;" and there are very few soldiers who, if the same question was put to them, but would, when replying, echo Shaw's words. Whatever impedes the free action of a man's limbs, or interferes with his respiration is a disadvantage, just as whatever permits of free motion or breathing must be beneficial. "Legs," said the Great Frederick, "win battles," and both before and since his time, the general who

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could mass twenty thousand troops at any one point, against ten thousand of those opposed to him, must to a certainty prevail at that particular part of the field of battle, always supposing that the superior body in numbers have not to carry entrenchments before they can reach their adversaries, or that when they arrive in front of the enemy they are from some cause physically unfit to attack.

Now it has been found that next to want of food, nothing weakens soldiers more than having to carry on the march heavier weights than the large majority of the men are capable of doing. Weight, like pace, tells on the strongest constitutions. When two horses are equal in strength, speed, stamina, and condition, a few ounces extra weight would cause the one on which this was imposed to lose the race. And if this is the case with two animals so equally matched, and capable of undergoing so much more fatigue than men, what other result can be expected from infantry, not only overweighted but unequally matched in strength, age, and powers of endurance, than failure, when its members come to be put to the test? When we think of the number of miles, over bad roads, and often no roads, British soldiers have trudged through in many campaigns, and the burdens they have borne, as well as other difficulties to contend against, we need not wonder at their occasional failures, we rather feel surprised they should have ever succeeded.

In the cavalry, the speed of the charge is always regulated by the speed of the slowest horse, and by the same rule, the weight an infantry soldier should carry, ought to be regulated by the strength and endurance of the weakest man in a battalion. In the field and within the circuit of the enemy's vigilance, the chief requisites are food, a rifle, and ammunition. With these, a towel, a hair comb, a pocket-knife, and a piece of soap, all of which could be easily carried in the havresack, any soldier should be able to go either upon outpost duty, work in the trenches, or attack the enemy's position. The remainder of his kit would of course be with the main body, and when regiments were in turn relieved from the duties we name, the men belonging to these corps could go to the rear and effect any changes of clothing they required.

Of late years, however, matters once deemed of little consideration have assumed important dimensions. The increased range and accuracy of projectiles have made it imperative for the forces engaged in deadly conflict to secure for themselves cover or other protection from the bullets of their foes, hence the pickaxe and spade have become as important adjuncts in warfare as the rifle, the difficulty being how these things are to be carried into action. It needs very little penetration to understand that a soldier cannot handle a rifle and a pickaxe at the same time, and although he might manage to carry both in some form, yet when called upon to use the one, he would, to do so, be obliged to put down the

other. The only other feasible plan is, for the soldier, when using his rifle to have the pickaxe slung behind his back, or *vice versa*, unless Surgeon-Major Oliver's recent proposal to give the infantry soldier a breastplate, which, with a handle, can be turned into a spade, is adopted.

Experience has proved the great value of the spade in the battlefields of modern warfare, and just as no general would think now of taking up a position for his force without first throwing up intrenchments to protect his men from sudden attack, so no commander would dream of hastily attacking an army that was thus defended. We have not seen the spade Dr. Oliver has invented, and therefore can have but a crude idea of what it resembles. However we can easily understand that the spoon portion of a spade could be made of such a shape as would protect the chest of the wearer from bayonet thrusts or bullets, as well as being useful, when he required to throw up that cover now indispensable for even skirmishers to possess. The handle would require to be carried either on the back or on the left side like a sword, and we do not see why it should not be so designed as to form a rest for the rifle when the soldier required to take a more than usually steady aim, and had the opportunity of doing so.

Whether they would be comfortable for soldiers to wear is however another question, and one we fear that must be answered in the negative, while "spade drill," tending as it does to the encouragement of round instead of square shoulders, will be detested by all the sergeants-major, adjutants, and martinets in the Service.

At the same time, "spade drill" will have to be introduced into the British army, for digging, like the goose step, will require some practice ere the majority of our men, that is all who have not "whistled at the plough," become proficients in the new military art.

Surgeon-Major Oliver's method will then, if approved of, do away altogether with the regimental tool carts, which then will be available for carrying the articles belonging to the soldiers' kit, now, in the new equipment of the soldier in the field, left behind. The head of the spade we should likewise remark may be carried over the buttocks under the flap of the "magazine equipment bag." The spade is to be furnished only to 240 men per 1000, the ordinary light pick and axe being supplied to forty more, so that about every fourth man in a battalion would carry intrenching tools. The man thus accoutred would not at the same time, have to carry so much ammunition as their comrades, although the reduction will still allow them to carry a greater number of rounds than infantry men carry at present. Those 280 soldiers would be supplied with seventy rounds per man, while the remaining 720 per thousand would be provided with 120 rounds each, making a total of 106,000 rounds to a regiment, or 7,200 more than is carried by the same number of men and three ammunition carts. We

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We have remarked how little in the way of necessaries soldiers actually require, when in the immediate vicinity of the enemy, and we are glad to find, on investigating the subject more closely, that the heaviest articles of the soldiers' kit are left behind. Shoe brushes, blacking, the spare pair of highlows and change of underclothing, all remain with the baggage waggons in rear, so by the new system each soldier will have at least five and a half pounds less to carry than he has at present in marching order, with seventy rounds in his valise.

By the proposed method, it will therefore be seen a regiment could make a forced march against the enemy, each man having three days rations with him, besides the necessary entrenching tools and a larger number of rounds of ammunition, yet have practically less weight to carry than now. Each man would have his great-coat, waterproof sheet to sleep upon, a change of socks, a jack-knife, mess-tin, and three days' rations of bread and meat, and thus a division might take the field and remain independent of not only its base of supplies, but of all baggage carts and such like impedimenta to progress for seventy-two hours: quite long enough a time now a days to carry out details of sufficient importance to favourably influence, if not to decide a campaign.

Transport has been always the weak point of an invading army, and only in a less degree of a defending one. Consequently the objections to the system of carrying entrenching tools in carts are the same as have prevailed against waggons that carry rations or ammunition, namely that as a means of supply they can never be depended upon. They may break down, (and on a narrow road one axletree has only to break to stop the progress of all behind it), or some of the draught animals fall lame, to cause a delay of several hours. This is supposing the roads are good, and that the enemy offers no opposition to the march of the baggage. When the enemy is both vigilant and daring, when the roads are not only bad but hilly in parts, and swampy in others, when bridges are found to have been made impassable, or when one portion of the waggons have been captured by the foe, and another portion disabled, then the dangers and difficulties of the ordinary system of transport can be estimated. In fact, so great has the difficulty become of moving waggons with any degree of certainty or of safety in a campaign, that it has been in contemplation to partially supersede them by pack animals, and only recently a pack saddle train was inspected at Woolwich by the Duke of Cambridge. But even if this plan was adopted, under the present system, twenty mules and a like number of drivers would be required for each regiment to carry the extra ammunition and engineering tools. Every infantry soldier now carries in marching order a weight of 22 lb. 7 oz., and this, Dr. Oliver proposes to reduce to 16 lb. 10 oz. for 720 men per thousand, and to 16 lb. for the other 280, who bear the intrenching tools.

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The reduction of weight recommended by Dr. Oliver, if received by the authorities with the favour the suggestion merits, should place the infantry in a far superior position as combatants to what it holds at present. Still soldiers, to act with the efficiency that modern warfare demands from them, must be subjected to a much stricter athletic and gymnastic training than they now receive. They must be taught more to fence, run, leap, climb, to throw hand grenades and to use the sword. At present about one soldier in ten would come under the heading of "a fair athlete," whereas nine men in every ten should answer that description, and this will only be done by practice and making them take a pride in their strength, skill and activity. This may all be done without harassing the men with numerous drills and parades. Cricket and foot ball matches between companies should be encouraged, as well as boxing, running, fencing and (where a river or lake is near) swimming. Paper hunts might, especially in camp, be of frequent occurrence, and in this way men would become active, muscular, and good-winded, from choice and not necessity. Training of this kind would in short become a pleasure and not a toil.

The equipment of the soldier is so closely connected with his powers of marching, that any reduction in the burden he has to bear, insures an increase of his efficiency. We have spoken of the soldier carrying three days' provisions, but when such a margin as 8 lbs. is available, he might easily carry six days' rations upon an emergency. On one point all military men must agree, namely, that the lighter the soldier's equipment is, the quicker and better he will be able to march. Napoleon said that if two armies were equal in all things except numbers, and marching powers, their relative values would be found not by comparing their numbers, but by comparing the product of their numbers and rates of progress. His opinion was that a force which could march twenty miles a day, would be as effective in a campaign as one of double the strength, which only marched at the rate of ten miles daily. We have only to imagine an army equipped, as Dr. Oliver suggests, and therefore capable of moving to the front with six days' rations, and few, if any, baggage animals to encumber its advance, being opposed to an equal force that depended for its daily subsistence and supply of ammunition, &c., upon the waggon train; to understand the great superiority the former body would possess over the latter. The one in fact would be able to march quite round the other.

We have heard a great deal one time and another about cooking-utensils and field-kitchens capable of producing so many gallons of good soup in a certain time, but of the food most requisite for soldiers on a campaign, namely, that which requires no cooking, we hear very little about. During the Franco-German War, the Prussian soldiers were supplied with a sausage ration, which as it could be eaten uncooked, proved of great utility. Now can we

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not have something of the same kind for the British soldier. Oatmeal is most nutritious, and in Scotland sausages, made of oatmeal and suet, are common, and when properly seasoned with salt and pepper are very palatable. These have the merit of being easily warmed, and should circumstances not permit of this, they can be eaten cold. Men after a long march, and anxious as much for rest as for food, would, we are convinced, infinitely prefer oatmeal sausages, which they had ready enough to hand, to having to wait dreary hours until the baggage had arrived, the meat issued, cooked and served out to them. Surely it is not necessary to wait until a campaign is concluded, and thousands of men have been starved to death before trying to ascertain which is the best and most portable food for an army in the field.

From food to firearms may seem a wide digression, but in warfare the connection between them is not such a distant one; the object of the first being to give strength to our own men, in order that they may so handle their arms as to kill or disable as many of the enemy as possible. Now of all deadly instruments which have been invented in recent years, it is doubtful if a more death-dealing one has appeared than the volley-gun. It is now termed the "Gatling Gun," but we prefer the old name, as being the more descriptive one. It is now a matter of history how Napoleon III. fancied, when he had secured a goodly number of this new arm, that he had now a weapon which would prove to be the decider of battles, bringing to him, of course, victory. A great advantage was the comparative lightness of this new weapon, which, sheathed in its leather case, was conveyed with such secrecy from the French Army stores to the scene of strife. So much had been expected from it, that it was only natural it should prove a failure, and so for a time it returned to the obscurity from which it had emerged.

Not that the Emperor of the French had had the first offer of the volley-gun, for Brig.-General Vandenburgh, of the United States' Army, had submitted in 1863 to our own Government a weapon capable of discharging together at one time 151 bullets. The plan of this gun was simple enough. One hundred and fifty-one rifled barrels were welded together, and being on the breech-loader principle, a circular board corresponding in diameter to the breech of the new gun, and with 151 holes in it, to receive the ammunition, instantly transferred the charge into the chambers of the gun. The ignition of the powder produced a simultaneous discharge of the projectiles, which fled through space to the target against which they were directed.

Theoretically this gun should have been a success, practically it was a failure. The barrels seemingly had been made too true, and the 151 bullets fell too close together, even at half-a-mile range, to be serviceable or even dangerous. If we recollect rightly, this was the fault of Napoleon III.'s pieces. In 1870, Major Frank Bolton purchased, we think, the patent of this volley-gun, with the

view of improving upon it, but we never heard if he did so or not. Possibly the Gatling Gun put in appearance about this time, and so snatched away the honour from him.

The "Gatling," however, of 1878, is as much in advance of the Volley-gun we have endeavoured to describe, as the Snider, or Martini-Henry, is superior to the Old Brown Bess, and if properly handled, will prove the most formidable death-dealing weapon this century has produced. Its mechanism is wonderful, causing it to differ essentially from all other fire-arms. The main features of the weapon may be summed up as follows: Possessing from five to ten barrels, each barrel has its corresponding lock, and although these revolve together, yet, in addition to this movement, the locks have a forward and backward motion of their own. The forward motion places the cartridges in the chambers of the barrels and closes the breech at the time of each discharge, while the backward motion withdraws the empty cartridge-cases after firing. It will therefore be seen that the gun can only be fired when the barrels move from right to left, and so long as the gun revolves and is kept fed with cartridges, all three operations of loading, firing, and extracting, are carried on uniformly and continuously. The gun receives its supplies from feed-cases (containing forty cartridges each), which fit into a hopper communicating with the chambers, and as soon as one case is emptied, another automatically takes its place, and thus continuous firing can be kept up at the rate of over 1,000 shots per minute.

In a lecture delivered in January, 1872, by Lieutenant-Colonel H. C. Fletcher, Scots Fusilier Guards, before the Royal United Service Institution, he stated, "From a comparison of a series of eleven trials of the small-sized Gatling, of the 9-pounder muzzle-loader field-gun, firing shrapnel, and of the Martini-Henry rifle, fired by six guardsmen, at ranges from 300 to 1,200 yards, but under various conditions in regard to time and known and unknown distances, I find that the Gatling made 2,699 hits, the 9-pounder muzzle-loader, 1,620 hits, and the Martini-Henry 718 hits; that is, the Gatling was about three and two-thirds times, and the 9-pounder two and a quarter times more effective than the Martini-Henry in the hands of six soldiers. . . . Not that this comparison is a true measure of the efficiency of the 9-pounder and Gatling as compared with infantry. To say that the fire from a field-gun was only equal to that of fourteen infantry, and that that of a Gatling was not more deadly than the fire of twenty-two infantry, would lead to very erroneous conclusions. Each arm has its own duty to perform, and there are moments in battle when no field-gun or Gatling would counterbalance the absence of even a section of infantry, as there are times when a single shell from a 9-pounder, or a volley from a Gatling would be worth more than the presence of a battalion."

It this was the case some seven years since, it must be far more

so now. Even at Sedan, the French mitrailleuses made sad havoc in the Prussian columns at a distance of 900 yards, that is to say, they were deadly against solid masses, but comparatively harmless against troops in line; and with the present improved Gatlings, all who have given the question their study, must allow that such weapons would be found of the utmost utility in any campaign, and if used at the proper moment, would do much to decide a victory. For defending a bridge, a breach, or for clearing a defile, there is no known weapon to be compared to it, while it is equally efficacious in an attack upon an advancing column of the enemy's troops, or in fact, whenever rapidity and great accuracy of fire is important.

CAMP STORIES.

A MARCH IN KAFFIR-LAND.

It was necessary at an early period of the Kaffir War, when the forces at the command of the Governor were so small, that the troops should be as it were ubiquitous. The enemy being in such vast hordes, it was impossible to do more than maintain the military posts on the border. Even some of these had to be abandoned, and the surrounding country given up to the wicked will of the robbing and murdering Kaffirs, the greatest thieves in the world, whose main object of plunder was cattle, by the capture of which they mostly measured their success.

Creeping about the bush, and keeping themselves nearly always out of sight, these savages were up to every trick of uncivilized warfare. Never openly attacking except when, with overwhelming numbers, they could fall upon a few; they hung about the skirts and rear of our columns on the line of march, and woe to the toil-worn stragglers, or wounded, that came into their power; such they have been known in their barbarous cruelty literally to flay alive.

Amongst other Expeditions set on foot by the energetic Commander was one, organized, of all arms, for the purpose of throwing men and ammunition into the beleaguered Fort Frontier at some distance from King William's Town. This force was composed of a squadron of cavalry, a wing of infantry, about two hundred Fingoes and one light field piece. Under their escort were five waggons loaded with military supplies, consisting of a quantity of cartridges, muskets, carbines, and clothing. Commissariat stores were not needed by those they were to relieve, as it was the height of summer, and the Fort was known to contain plenty of grain and cattle.

Their orders were to proceed with all despatch, but to make somewhat of a detour with a view of inflicting summary punishment on the Kaffir kraals in the neighbourhood of Bedford and Old Goat's Hill. The former of these places had recently been the

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scene of the ruthless massacre of some military settlers established there by Government. They had lived for three years on friendly terms with the natives, but no feelings of friendship could suppress the Kaffir lust for blood. At the Old Goat's Hill there was a Missionary Station, which had been pillaged and burnt by rebel Hottentots, the occupants escaping only with bare life.

Having prepared in every way for bush fighting, the Expedition set forth. Their dress, officers and soldiers alike, was a patrol jacket and fustian trousers, dyed the colour of the bush, with the decoction of Mimosa bark. Spare oxen for the waggons, laden lightly for speed, were provided in sufficient numbers to meet all contingencies, and the order of march was formed. First, a troop of cavalry, then two companies, the waggons, the Fingoes and spare oxen, one company, the field gun, one company, and last of all the second troop. Advance and rear guards as well as flanking parties were thrown out as a matter of course, and, to give confidence to the drivers and "foreloopers,"* four men were told off as escort to each waggon.

They had not proceeded far before they became aware that the Kaffirs were on the alert, and dusky scouts were seen perched upon points of vantage on the hills about their route. There was no opposition made on the first day's march; but random and long shots were fired into the bivouac at night without any effect.

On the second day, at the Inthumba drift on the Barouba river, they found that the Kaffirs had rendered the ford impassable for waggons by rolling huge rocks into it, which checked their progress; but by making a slight circuit they crossed a couple of miles lower down. Here was their first casualty; a careless trooper of the rear-guard lingered at the river to let his horse drink, and was shot from the neighbouring bush, into which his body was dragged, with shouts of malicious glee, by the savages. The gun had moved some little distance on the further bank, when a Kaffir, evidently a lesser chief, appeared on the summit of a krantz, or cliff, on the river side just quitted, brandishing his assegai, and waving intelligence to those in the bush beneath him, who were probably stripping the dead man. The artillery officer thought he would, at least, frighten the fellow, who was about six hundred yards off; and in spite of Napoleon's maxim, "*un homme ne vaut pas un coup de canon*," determined to try a shot at him; so he unlimbered, got his piece into "action rear," took a careful aim and fired. Though he did not show it, he was really as much surprised as any one at the effect of his shot, which struck the scout full in the body, and knocked him into an unsavoury heap of sable mortality. That young officer wore an eye-glass, and thenceforth his fame was established among the Kaffirs, who ever afterwards called him "the hawk with *three* eyes."

On the third day the force attacked the rebel Hottentots at

* Leaders at the head of each team of oxen.

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Old Goat's Hill, and drove them from the station, killing forty and capturing eight hundred head of cattle; and, fulfilling the requisite, in such a campaign, of passing rapidly from point to point, the commanding officer moved against Bedford on the fourth day. The blackbirds, however, had flown, and driven off all their cattle with them; and so their kraals were burnt, and their granaries of corn and standing crops destroyed, one of the best expedients for bringing the wretches to terms; and, on the fifth day, the column headed for Fort Frontier, now two marches off.

The force had toiled and fought through intense heat, at the rate of twenty-five miles daily, so what wonder that by this time a few of the men came to be knocked up and foot-sore, insomuch that only the fear of being cut off by wild beasts, or the enemy, kept some of the poor fellows up with their comrades. It was decided then that such men as were unable to proceed the last day, should encamp temporarily in as safe a position as could be found, that fifteen sound men and an officer should remain with them, and that they should be picked up on the return to King William's-town by the moiety of the force after these had rested thirty-six hours at Fort Frontier. This arrangement would give the foot-sore soldiers, thirteen in number, three days halt for recovery. Four days' rations and plenty of plaster and bandages were left with them, and the main body went off, reaching the Fort on the sixth evening after having accomplished one hundred and forty-seven miles.

The spot selected for Foot-sore Camp, as it was named, was at the top of a detached eminence, on which stood a mighty rock. The hill sloped gradually and equally down on all sides, and a huge square slab, projecting from one face of the rock, afforded shelter. A spring of fresh water trickling down the hill supplied that essential element to the party of twenty-nine, all told. The first thing to do was to cut away all brushwood within close range, and to form a circle of abattis therewith. This the Kaffirs would certainly attempt to burn in the night, but that was provided against by making the abattis as much as possible of the "wait-a-bit" thorn which is too succulent to take fire. Two sentries were posted by day, and doubled at sunset. According to their custom, the Kaffirs, during the night, fired long shots from the bush but did no mischief.

Next day the subaltern officer mounted the rock, and with his field-glass surveyed the scene, which was truly beautiful; the grass was gemmed with brilliant flowers, the trees and shrubs displayed their vary-coloured blossoms, and as there was no sign whatever of the stealthy foe in the lovely landscape, he determined to take a stroll with his gun for the chance of a shot at a strange covey. He had heard of several who, through such unwise ventures, had lost their lives at the hands of lurking Kaffirs, of whom there might be many in the bush unseen; but how could he remain for

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two whole days on that spot with no other excitement than that of admiring the prospect around him; besides, there were no cattle, that bait irresistible, to tempt Kaffirs to stay about the neighbourhood of his small but well-protected band. So off he went alone; making towards the little river at the foot of the hill, where he hoped to secure a couple of flappers; but his thoughts of sport and dinner were rapidly and rudely dispelled by a bullet whizzing past his head, and three naked Kaffirs jumping from their ambush close by. Luckily for him they are, as a rule, bad shots, loading very loosely; but it was a miracle he escaped, for twelve paces is a short range, and he at once proved it so to them. With a dose of small shot from each barrel straight in their faces, he brought down two of them right and left; and the third turned tail and ran, when even with an assegai he might have got the better of a man with a discharged gun only in his hand. It was a warning, however, not to be neglected, and with all speed he returned to the comparatively safe refuge of Foot-sore Camp.

That night the Kaffirs again fired on them, calling out jeeringly to the party, "Ah, ah! now you are like calves in a bog; you have got in and can't get out; we will come to-morrow night in hundreds and put the cold hand on you." An unlucky shot following this derisive shout, laid one poor fellow, a sentry, low; whether his death was owing to chance, or whether the shot was fired by one of the more skilful rebel Hottentots could not be known, but the loss of John Jordan, who had always been a God-fearing, honest and trustworthy soldier, was much lamented. He was buried within the abattis on the following morning, and a large fire lit over his grave to hide its position from the beast of the forest, and from more brutal Kaffirs, who would exhume a corpse for the sake of a brass button, the foul purposes of witchcraft, or the vindictive delight of mutilation. A comrade carved the simple words, "Jordan past," upon the face of the rock which rose above, a grand and lasting monument to his memory.

True to his promise, the commanding officer, having reinforced Fort Frontier with half his force, arrived at Foot-sore Camp that evening and bivouacked there. With empty waggons in which any who absolutely required it could have a lift, he took, next morning, the direct route to King William's-town, which he reached in two days, after a most successfully conducted expedition; not to rest long, however, for in that harassing warfare, his ability and activity, and his men's pluck and endurance were called upon, and made manifest, in many other enterprises in the depths of the South African Bush.

A ROLLING STONE.

A bold adventurous young fellow joined the —th Dragoons at the Cape during the Kaffir War, and had some sharp experiences both of battle and sport while he remained in that part of the

world. The younger son in a good old county family, Clarence Marcel, with a younger son's inheritance, had enough to live on comfortably in a profession, but not enough on which to enjoy life without one. He had begun early in the Navy, and distinguished himself as a boy by leaping overboard, with his short sword on, to save the life of a fellow middy. Tiring of the sea, he elected to make a fresh start in the Army; but still would stick to the royal blue for the colour of his uniform, and soon after joining the above regiment, his high spirited and mettlesome qualities were quickly recognised. In a contest like that going on in Kaffir-land such a character was certain to be appreciated.

It was on the occasion of a sweeping incursion into the enemy's territory to recapture and drive in some large herds of cattle, which the Kaffirs had accumulated by raids at various times on the Colony, that Clarence earned his first meed of military praise. The cavalry detachment, with which he was doing duty, having dispersed to collect the oxen, scattered over the face of the country, was suddenly surprised, and nearly surrounded, by large bodies of Kaffir horsemen, many of whom were armed with carbines. The intention of these savages, who, to give them their due, moved in capital order and evidently under good discipline, was to attack the British cavalry in detail, and intercept them in their efforts to drive off the recovered plunder. In rear of one of the parties of Englishmen rode Clarence Marcel and a troop sergeant-major. The Kaffirs, with loud shouts of anticipated success, advanced at full speed, as soon as they perceived that their presence was discovered, and at their first headlong onset the sergeant-major was shot, and fell from his horse, which rushed away riderless to join its companions. Clarence instantly jumped off his charger, a Colt's revolver in his hand, and, without the loss of a moment, lifted the wounded man into the saddle, in spite of the poor fellow's protest, and entreaties that he would look to himself: "Never mind me, Sir, I am a dead man, save yourself." "Do as you are bid," was the young officer's terse reply, as he fired at the foremost Kaffir, who immediately pulled up and hurled his knobkerry, or short loaded stick, at him. The knobkerry struck the revolver with such force as to knock the chamber cylinder clean away, and render the pistol useless; but the first shot had lamed the Kaffir's horse. Holding the stirrup-leather and urging on his charger, Clarence ran by his side, and though a score pursued and many shots followed him, he succeeded in overtaking the rear-guard, and placing the wounded sergeant-major, who ultimately recovered, in safety.

A somewhat similar occurrence took place, subsequently, when the —th Dragoons again had orders to drive in a large number of cattle, several thousand head, that had been captured about eight miles from the camp. The regiment being dispersed on this duty, Clarence Marcel and some other officers, with a party of about

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forty men, were sadly harassed by the Kaffirs who swooped down in hordes upon them, killing many horses and several men. No sooner, however, was a horse shot down than the rider was taken up by a comrade, and when succour reached them every horse left in the party was carrying double.

An incident, illustrative of the audacity of the Kaffirs, which would be laughable but for the fatal results, occurred when the troop to which Clarence belonged was acting with a small force of infantry. The horses were picketed, and the men bivouacked within the ruined *enceinte* of an old mud fort; and the infantry mounted a guard on the outside of the crumbling walls. The sentry was pacing up and down on his post, when, about eleven o'clock at night, some eight or ten pigs were noticed sidling up towards the fire, grunting and squeaking the while. The men threw billets of wood and faggot sticks at them for amusement, upon which they grunted and ran off into the brushwood. This happened repeatedly until all the men, except the sentry, lay down under their blankets, and slept. The pigs continued to approach the fire stealthily as before, and, when the sentry's back was turned, suddenly jumped up and killed him and one of the sleeping guard, besides wounding two others. The pigs were really Kaffirs, who had sustained the character so effectively for their purpose; and before any steps could be taken for their punishment, they were off and away to be no more seen.

When peace was restored by the submission of the Kaffir chiefs, the —th Dragoons were ordered home to England, but Clarence Marcel had no mind to return yet to civilization, and "the sweet shady side of Pall Mall;" so he sold out and set forth on an expedition in quest of big game in Zulu-land.

Arriving at the Tuzela, on the Natal frontier, the first thing to do was to provide himself with some trusty native followers of experience in the chase, and with knowledge of the haunts and habits of the wild animals of the country. Observing one day a remarkably fine powerful Zulu, whose back and chest were scored with very peculiar marks, he enquired into the cause of the scars, and learned that the man had been seized by an immense alligator when crossing the White Umphaloos, a broad river in the neighbourhood of St. Lucia Bay. The monster, on closing his fearful teeth upon him, dived, and, with a view to the full enjoyment of a meal, carried him on shore to a shady and secluded spot where, no doubt, the brute had been accustomed to pic-nic. Here, in misguided confidence, he rashly dropped his prize, intending, perhaps, to commence operations on some specially tender part; but the active Zulu did not lose his chance; his legs being fortunately uninjured, no sooner did he find himself freed than he made off with a bound, leaving the alligator, so far as he was concerned, supperless and lamenting. This man, Clarence took into his ser-

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vice under the style and title of "Crimped Cod," and found in him an invaluable henchman.

Nor was it long before he himself had the narrowest escape of becoming an alligator's prey, when lying out one fine moonlight night, waiting for sea-cow, on the bank of a river. The spot, on which he had pitched for his nocturnal watch, sloped abruptly to the stream, and there, having put his rifle down by his side, he succumbed to the lulling influences of the murmuring waters and fell asleep. Presently he was recalled to consciousness by feeling himself slowly and involuntarily descending the steep bank. The phenomenon was quickly and horribly explained when he saw that an enormous alligator had got him by the boot, and was gently backing with him into the river. Not a second was to be lost; his rifle was already almost out of reach, when instinctively he snatched and cocked it. Ramming the muzzle past his foot into the huge reptile's jaws he pulled both triggers, and, at the very edge of the water, was released, with a parting crunch to his ankle that for many weeks prevented his exposing himself as alligator bait.

Once, when following a wounded buffalo, he stepped on the folds of a black mambra, and only just avoided the bite of that deadly serpent, seven feet long, by springing high, straddle-legged, into the air, as it darted its fangs at him, the vindictive head grazing his knee.

On a certain 12th of August, the anniversary of St. Grouse, Clarence Marcel and a friend of his made a strange bag indeed. His companion happened, on the evening of the 11th, to stroll out, from a newly pitched camp, with only a single-barrel large bore rifle, loaded, but with no spare ammunition in his pocket. Before he had proceeded far on the plain, he observed three white rhinoceroses lying down; a bull, cow and calf. Running in upon them he put them up, and selecting the cow, as having the longest horn, gave her his only bullet behind the shoulder. She staggered away and fell about fifty yards off, and the bull and calf stayed by her, the former looking very vicious—so he determined, as night was coming on, to leave his game where it lay, three quarters of a mile from camp, though he knew he should be laughed at by Clarence for not at least bringing in the tail of the slain cow. At daybreak on the 12th they both sallied forth to look up the dead rhinoceros, alongside of which they saw, as they approached, what seemed at first to be jackals, but presently they discovered that three magnificent lions were tearing at the ears of the old cow, and rending the carcase of the calf which they had pulled down. Each taking his own mark, the two sportsmen fired simultaneously, and Clarence's ball crushed into a lion's head, entering above one eye, and passing to the brain; nevertheless the splendid beast was able to turn and disappear in some tall Guinea grass thirty or forty yards off. Into this the

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other two lions also withdrew, both hit; one mortally through the neck by Clarence's companion, and the other struck in some doubtful part by his own second barrel. They at once proceeded to look for the wounded lions, and cautiously advancing and pushing aside the thick grass, twelve feet high, came upon one quite dead, having literally scented him out by the strong odour—of real menagerie flavour—which he emitted. Dragged off by the attendant Zulus, he was laid by the rhinoceroses, and search for the second hard-hit lion was continued. This one too they hunted up at last by smell, but he was further in the grass, and had fallen and died in a narrow ravine. Ropes were made fast to him, and the Zulus set to work to haul up the great animal, as large as a small ox, out of the deep hollow, the two Englishmen getting down, without their weapons, to give an auxiliary hoist with their shoulders. Suddenly there was a loud cry from the Zulus above, "umbubi, umbubi;" (lion, lion) and they all skedadled, except one, letting the suspended monster fall on their employers, rolling over like ninepins to the bottom of the gully, into which also tumbled "Crimped Cod," who alone had held on to the tackling. Fortunately they were not crushed beneath the weight of the defunct lion, and, jumping up merrily, they recalled the runaways, and made another more successful effort to retrieve the spoil. Whether or not the third lion had appeared to the Zulus on the top of the bank they could never really ascertain. It might have gone hard with them, unarmed in the ravine, if he had attacked. A curious coincidence then came to light. Two lions, a cow and a calf rhinoceros, represented their "bag;" and they were admiring the skins and horns as the grand creatures lay side by side.

"Why, how is this?" said Clarence to his friend, "you must have fired a second barrel at the rhinoceros cow last night; here is another bullet-hole in her flank."

This was of course denied as impossible, and the ball was cut out. It proved to be that with which the lion last found had been shot. A steel-tipped conical bullet, it had passed through the one beast and lodged in the other. Suppressing, therefore, the fact that the latter was already dead—killed by himself previously—Clarence's comrade might have said that he had shot a lion and a rhinoceros with one and the same cartridge.

After a year of royal sport, poor Clarence took passage in a steamer from Durban to Cape Town, with six large cases of trophies of the chase, wherewith he hoped his elder brother's baronial halls should be adorned; but off Cape Agullas, in a fog, the vessel struck on the fatal Birkenhead rock, and his hard won spoils went down with her; the passengers and crew reaching the shore safely in the boats with nothing but what they stood in.

During the war with Russia, Clarence Marcel did tough work, as a commander of Irregular Horse, on the Danube; and when that

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was over, he obtained an appointment in the Consular service. This he soon relinquished, for the outbreak of the great Civil War in America offered attractions not to be resisted, and there it was that he met his gallant end. The last of his brave deeds was by no means the least.

It was after a disastrous defeat that a corps of Confederate Cavalry, in which Clarence held the rank of Major, had to take part in covering the retreat of the beaten army. Coming with some of his men upon three brass nine-pounder field guns, which had been abandoned by the artillerymen in their flight, he cast about for means of saving them from the hands of the Federals. The guns were drawn up close to the bank of a river across which lay the line of retreat. A neighbouring bridge was choked with masses of troops in hurried tumultuous march; so that to carry the field pieces off by the road was out of the question. By good luck, amongst the scattered contents of a broken down waggon, he espied a coil of stout rope. Reeving one end of this securely to the trail of a gun carriage, and retaining the other, he and his men plunged their horses into the river, which had shelving banks and a gravelly bed; but was about thirty yards wide, and deep in the middle channel. Gaining the opposite side they dismounted, and hauled the gun to them through the water. Clarence then swam his horse back, and made fast the rope to another gun which was similarly secured. Returning again for the third, he left it to his troopers on the further shore to complete the salvage, and galloped away himself to another part of the field where the cavalry were engaged with the Federal horsemen who had violently assaulted the rear-guard. Joining with them in a crashing charge against the pursuing columns, he faced his doom, and "foremost fighting, fell." Clarence Marcel was a "rolling stone," and gathered no moss in his journeys here; but never did braver, truer, or more generous heart than his beat under the belt of a soldier.

He perished in the danger that he loved.

THE BOY.

Deponent doth not set forth his name. It might perhaps be arrived at by a close study of the Army List, or by a glimpse at the docket on his last commission; if a paternal Government, which carefully and at once levied the stamp duty thereon, had as yet rendered to him that mysterious document. Unofficially, and indeed semi-officially, for years and years, he has been known only as "The Boy;" and many of his Club compeers have but a hazy notion to this day regarding his patronymic. Said the Colonel to the Adjutant in the Regimental Orderly Room at a sweltering station in the West Indies: "Oh yes, we must let 'the Boy' go, and have his little trip in Canada, though we shall all be sorry to lose him. Forward his application, without delay, for leave of absence pending the appearance of his exchange in the Gazette. I see the Regiment

he wishes to join is under orders for Burmah; and should fancy he will not be much better off in that pestiferous country, in the matter of either climate or quarters than we are here."

Poor Colonel! how little did he think that the Boy's leave would be the last granted to an officer in *his* reign; or conceive what sort of girl the Boy would leave behind him. So, when the steamer for Halifax arrived, the Boy went on board, to select a cabin and make final arrangements for the voyage. The first thing he saw on deck was the corpse of a female, covered with a sheet; and, on enquiry, was told that a lady from the Brazils had died the day before of a "calentura;" that it was a sporadic case, and the fever not contagious, as was proved by the vessel having got pratique; otherwise he would not have been allowed aboard. The next day the steamer left, the woman having been interred in the cemetery, and her clothes, made up into a bundle, thrown overboard.

Two months afterwards the Boy had tidings, by letter, of the tragedy that ensued, and the danger he had escaped. The dead woman's clothes had been washed ashore at a part of the island where an old married soldier was permitted to reside, in charge of a vegetable garden, from which occasional supplies were furnished to the officers' mess. This man's wife had picked up the saturated bundle, and, after well washing them, took the articles into wear. In a week she was the first victim of one of the most fearful epidemics of yellow fever ever recorded; during the course of which in the ill-fated corps the Boy had so recently quitted, there perished no less than seven officers amongst whom was the Colonel, and 250 men; besides women and children. An officer and thirteen men were buried one day in the same grave. A man might follow a comrade to the tomb to-day, and to-morrow his comrades would follow him.

Ah! who that has not seen and suffered; who that has not passed through the terrible ordeal, can realize the protracted horror of such a time? Universal depression is spread abroad, acting variously on individuals according to their temperament. Many cast the feeling aside with reckless ribaldry; a few face it with stern composure; some are stricken with nervous dread. For these last there is the least hope. The courageous spirit *may* yield to the insidious malady; the timid one *must*. A campaign where no medal is won; no glory gained: and yet how much harder to go through with than battle or storm, in which the blood is up, and all thought of peril far from the mind; in which men smite, and are smitten, with the dilated eye and compressed lip of fierce excitement, smiling even at the stroke of death. As the band strikes up a lively quick-step when the funeral party turn their backs upon the soldier's last resting-place; so let us away—away from the ghastly crowd of new made sepulchres, in a field where no sword could be drawn against the foe that slaughtered. Honourably they fell in the paths of Duty; with saddened memories let us away.

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"Garçon, apportez moi un vin-blanc cordonnier." The Boy had met an old *pal* at Halifax, and they were proceeding up the St. Lawrence in a steamer, the steward of which was a French Canadian.

"I *am* thirsty," exclaimed the pal, "but I can't ask for what I want in parley voo lingo."

"What will you have?" answered the Boy, "I was high up in the French class under old Cambrière, what shall it be?"

"Sherry cobbler," said the pal.

"All right," quoth the Boy, boldly, "Garçon, apportez un vin-blanc cordonnier."

"A white wine shoe-maker," as may be imagined, suggested only the obscurity of an enigma, beyond the depth of the provincial steward; who, however, at once brought the beverage when asked for it in English. What an advantage it was for the Boy to have studied French at the Military College. Well, he was not so bad as the soldier's wife at Beljaum, in the Southern Mahratta country, who went into the bazaar to buy a sheep's head; and begun her marketing with the question, "Kitne bujje* for the sheep's topi," that is, in the vernacular—if it had any meaning at all—"What o'clock for the sheep's (this in English) hat?" And because the wretched native could not comprehend that the price of the delicacy was the object of enquiry, she raised her brawny arm and knocked him down. Stupid hog! not to understand his own language.

But we must pass over the Canadian trip, and the overland route, and get on to the war in Burmah, which broke out directly after the Boy's exchange was effected, and before he had joined his new Regiment. The prospect of good Indian pay and plentiful rupees had allured him to the East, with the hope of making up for past unthrift, how delighted then must he have been to find that these were to be supplemented by field batta, and the piquant seasoning of a campaign. The Burmese preparations for war had been made on a very extensive scale, and they seemed determined to fight it out: attributing to timidity all overtures from us for a peaceful settlement of the dispute, and rejecting our demands of redress for insults and cruelties to British subjects.

The ancient prophecy that the dismemberment of their Empire should follow the advent, in the Irawaddy, of vessels without sails or rowers was disregarded; or, possibly, its fulfilment was considered to have been accomplished in the war of 1824-26 in which the terror of the Burmese was so excited by the little steam packet "Diana;" and when Tenasserim and its provinces were ceded to us. A powerful squadron of steamers now co-operated with the land forces, and the blue-jackets shared in most of the actions that took place. The troops had been housed at Rangoon and Martaban during the rains, but, the monsoon over, it was determined, towards the end of September, to push forward.

An advanced post of only 400 men had been imprudently

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* Literally, "How many strokes?" referring to beat of gong.

stationed at Tongmang, sixty miles off. They had been sent there to protect the inhabitants, who were friendly to us, from ill-treatment by the Burmese army, the main body of which was not far away. Consequently this detachment was cut off from their communications; convoys were intercepted; and, finally, the place was invested by the Burmese, 8,000 strong; who harassed the little garrison day and night. A force was at once detailed for their relief, consisting of 150 seamen from the men-of-war, and 300 troops. The Boy, on arrival in Burmah, had been quartered on board one of Her Majesty's steamships with some men, indeed many of the troops had passed the rainy season afloat, partly for sanitary reasons, and partly from want of accommodation on shore. He had become intimate with his messmates, amongst whom he was also "the Boy;" and the fortune of war ordered that he should go on the above expedition with his naval friends. The force, on approaching Tougmang, was landed from the boats; and skirmishers were forthwith thrown out; but the Burmese were too many for them; and they were obliged to retire before overwhelming numbers with the loss of five men, who were immediately beheaded by the exulting enemy. The boat in which the Boy had been conveyed to the verge of the unequal confiict was fitted with a rocket tube, fixed by a stand to the gunwale, and it was most desirable that this apparatus should be made use of against the pursuing swarms of Burmese; but, unfortunately, the tube could not be brought to bear in the right direction, as the view was impeded by the deep bank under whose shelter the boat lay. No sooner was the Boy aware of this, on the retreat to the boats, than he begged the naval officer to give him a rocket, and, calling a sailor to follow him with lighted fuze, rushed to an eminence, and there, holding the rocket tight in his hands, had it fired from his very grasp; and with so much presence of mind did he do this, that he particularly noticed the light breeze blowing across the line of his fire, and carefully pointed the missile *down wind*. That he would be severely scorched in this performance was certain, and it was wonderful how soon he recovered from it—in time indeed to be present with one of two strong columns which advanced subsequently from Rangoon, and forced a passage, through the Burmese, to the relief of Tongmang.

The whole division then moved up the Irawaddy to the attack of Phangoo, upon the defences of which the ships opened fire as soon as they came abreast of them. These consisted of a long stockade on the right bank, a breastwork of solid masonry at a salient point on the river, and guns in every position of advantage on both sides. Under the fire of the navy the troops were landed, and marched upon the Great Fish Pagoda. There was an open space of 800 yards around the Pagoda, and this the stormers crossed, steadily, under a heavy fire from the enemy crowding the walls. When the steps were reached a rush was made, and the Burmese fled, being met by fire from the steamers as they ran. On the capture of the

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Pagoda, Phangoo was evacuated by the enemy, and occupied by our people. By the fall of this place the country so far was cleared of Burmese troops on the right bank of the Irawaddy; but they still held the left bank, and were established in force at Goshyr, only six miles from Phangoo. From this they were quickly expelled, and so the war went on, a repetition of attacking and taking one stockade after another, until the Burmese authorities virtually gave in.

Some parts, however, of the country continued to be infested by a lawless banditti, to whom were joined large numbers of the defeated Burmese soldiery. One body of these, estimated at about 6,000, occupied a very formidable stronghold, and were commanded by the notorious robber chief Talapraan, who of course acted under covert sanction and encouragement from the Lord of the Golden Foot. Twice had these "irregulars" succeeded in repelling our attacks, made by soldiers and sailors combined, and inflicted heavy losses on us. Their defensive position was an admirable one. A stockade, of which the main wall was constructed of young teak trees, six inches in diameter, driven close together into the ground, leaving about fourteen feet of timber above the level of the soil. These were secured together at the top, where embrasure-like openings were left. Within, a solid mass of earth, well rammed, rose at an angle of forty-five degrees to three feet from the top, and inside the enclosure were the barrack houses of the Burmese. The position extended for about one thousand yards at the head of a stream, and parallel to its course. Its rear was covered by the impenetrable marsh in which the stream took its rise; its flanks were shrouded by impervious jungle. The front face only was exposed, and that was protected by a deep ditch, fourteen feet wide, beyond which sharp bamboo spikes, called *commachees*, were thickly and firmly planted, pointing outwards, and mostly concealed by brushwood and long grass. A powerful masked battery swept this front, and an elevated watch-tower enabled the defenders to keep a good look-out against attack. So elate with their previous successes was this Burmese scratch garrison, that, after the manner of their predecessors of nearly thirty years before, they dubbed themselves "Invincibles," and "Retrievers of Glory."

Accounts with the Burmese regular army being nearly settled, it was necessary that the Dacoit chief, and his followers, should be fallen upon by a force of such strength as would ensure their rout and dispersion. Accordingly a strong column was despatched on this service. It was divided into two wings, which day by day, alternately, took up the position of advance and rear guards; and, so dense was the forest, the former had to add the severe labour of making a road to its other duties. The Boy was with his Regiment in the right wing, on the third day that wing was leading when, after a march of some three miles, they came on a lesser advanced stockade, which they stormed and bivouacked in for the night. Next day the left

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wing took the lead, and, while struggling over the rough ground, were brought to a standstill by a brisk fire, in their front, from a breastwork, covered by an abattis; the whole being obscured by the smoke of fires, lit by the enemy to hide their movements. In spite of this they were driven out, and pursued for a mile; when the troops were halted within three miles of Talapraan's main position. On the fifth day it was again the turn of the right wing to advance to the front, which they did along a path admitting only two abreast. The Sappers and Miners worked hard to widen the path, for the passage of the guns, and continued to do so, under a heavy fire from the stockade, until the battery was brought up to effect a breach. This accomplished, the assault was given, and the fastness was in our hands; though dearly paid for by the loss of 115 officers and men, killed and wounded. The Boy was among the latter; one of the invisible bamboo stakes having pierced his leg with a jagged ugly gash, and put him "hors de combat." While lying helpless near the ditch he overlooked the greater part of the fight, and could not help being amused when he now and then saw a Burmese levant into the jungle with some unhappy Briton's hand or arm. If they were able to chop off one of these, as the English soldier seized the woodwork of the stockade, they would hastily carry away the severed limb, under a firm conviction that the skill of our surgeons was capable of uniting it again without fail to the maimed body. Not long after this came the notification of Peace, and the annexation of Pegu; so the Boy lost little by being sent home in April, invalided for his wound.

His next campaign was the matrimonial one. He accompanied an aunt, with whom he was on playfully affectionate terms, to a ball in London; and took her down to the supper-room. Espying there a magnificent dish of strawberries, he laid hands on a swollen monster, and turned round suddenly, with the intention of popping it into his aunt's mouth. Great was his surprise to find he had performed this piece of "legerdemain" upon a remarkably pretty, but utterly unknown stranger, whose white teeth, and lips as red as the fruit, nevertheless intuitively closed on the luscious mouthful. The first sense of awkwardness gave way to merriment; merriment was followed by introduction; and introduction by "the Lancers"—he was not equal to a *round* dance yet. In due course lovemaking succeeded dancing, and marriage both.

The Boy is now high up in the professional tree military, and has boys of his own—very fine boys too—each of whom, under the above circumstances ought to be personally marked, somewhere or other, with a natal impression of the causal strawberry.

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CORRESPONDENCE.

A WEEK IN PARIS.

Sir.—It is rather late in the day to offer advice to those who are still hesitatingly engaged in calculating the feasibility of a trip to Paris during the Exhibition, and to those who have returned after a more or less hurried visit, a description of what might or should have been done or seen will seem superfluous and scarcely relishable, on the plea that to be wise after the event would only be an aggravation of feelings and apt to pile up the agony of unavailing regret; but, nevertheless, we are vain enough to imagine, that both parties will in some degree profit by the experience of one who took the pecuniary plunge in the most blissful ignorance, and yet has had no cause to regret it. A brief retrospect of a pleasant sojourn in the gay metropolis may at all events encourage others to visit it on a future occasion, and it certainly will prove practically that it is quite within the resources of a limited income to indulge —once in a way—in the luxury and charming variety of a like enterprise. Of course it must be admitted that a tour on the Continent this year, embracing Paris *en route* and not doing so, will exhibit considerable monetary differences, but the following reminiscences being confined to the accomplishment of our individual undertakings will contain suggestions solely applicable to those who contemplate a week's stay there during the Exhibition. The plan may be amplified to suit the time, taste, purse, and inclinations of our readers, with which, however, we have nothing to do.

Without prejudice to those indefatigable caterers of the travelling public, Messrs. Cook and Gaze, we determined self-reliantly to "paddle our own canoe," and when subsequently we encountered the banded excursionists rushing with headlong haste through the Louvre and elsewhere in charge of a brass-capped cicerone, there was much cause for thankfulness that we had not yielded to the temptation of a tinsel economy. Accordingly on the night of Saturday, the 15th of June, we obtained tourist's tickets at 36*s*. each, available for the return journey, first-class, by any night service during fourteen days. In addition there was a registering fee of 2*s*. for luggage to be paid, which frees the passenger from all anxiety on that score until arrival at Paris. We had the carrriage to ourselves from London Bridge to Newhaven, and immediately embarked in the South Coast Company's steamer for Dieppe. It was a warm and cloudless night, the channel calm as the lunar "sea of serenity," and our steamers (for there were two) made the passage consequently an hour too soon for the state of the tide, compelling us to lay off the harbour and thus to miss the earliest train, but affording a pleasing opportunity to view the pretty coastline of the Continent. There is no possibility of doubting the fact of being in a foreign land on entering the narrow port, for a huge brazen crucifix erected on the rocks above, and the uniform of the French Police, proclaim it distinctly enough before the jargon of white-capped women and men in blouses on the pier, can reach the ear. The railway runs alongside the landing stage, and better still there is a spacious and well-kept restaurant, opened lately by the Company for the special comfort of their passengers on landing, it may be, after a rough and tempestuous passage. Here we breakfasted, and at 9.30 the train moved away slowly through the outskirts of Dieppe, affording us a peep at the market-place thronged with its Sunday-folk in gay attire, and so onward through fields and villages, to Rouen, where we were allowed to regale on grapes and strawberries during a stoppage of half-an-hour; thence through tunnels and along a high level embankment overlooking the sunny valley of the winding Seine. We began to lose count of time

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and distance until the frequent villages and closely cultivated country gave unmistakeable indications of our rapid approach to the capital. A more beautiful line of country than that from Dieppe to Paris there could not be found—in fact it may well be said that *la belle France* receives her guests with smiling landscapes and gracious expanses of lovely scenery. It was 1.30 p.m. as we ran into the station of St. Lazarre in company with two or three crowded excursion trains, and here there was a necessary delay of half-an-hour for the formal inspection of luggage. There are two classes of cabs in Paris, but we soon secured a four-wheeler in which we were driven at a snail's-pace to our destination. Thus precious moments were lost, and we were prevented seeing the great race of the year, the *Grand Prix de Paris*. However we were able to enjoy the next best thing to the French Derby, namely, a sight of the world of Paris returning from Longchamps as they reached the diverging point of the Arc de Triomphe. The continuous flow of carriages three and four abreast along the Bois de Boulogne and down the Champs Elysées for upwards of an hour seemed like an elongated Rotten Row promenade on a crowded afternoon when Her Majesty is expected. Nor were we unrewarded waiting for royalty with strained attention, inasmuch as the President of the Imperial Republic (to use a fitting oxymoron) brought up the rear in a carriage preceded by outriders, and beside him sat that mysterious monarch, the Shah of Persia.

After dinner we strolled leisurely down the Champs Elysées to view the Boulevards by gaslight, and thereupon experienced those mingled feelings of undue excitement and incredulous surprise which a sight of Paris out of doors on Sunday night is apt to create. The brilliancy of everything, at once seductive and inspiriting—the gas-lit open cafés with well-dressed loungers seated at tables arranged in front sipping iced drinks or café—the lightsome creatures in gauze and flowing muslin promenading past with their gay cavaliers in summer costume—the pure and balmy atmosphere itself bathing the senses while it exhilarates the spirits—the soft murmuring of voices from the tree-lined boulevards and the distant streets conduce to form a fairyland in fancy and a sweet oblivion of all things mundane. Our course lay eastward along the Boulevard des Italiens, but the ascent of the Boulevard Montmartre proved too much for wearied limbs, and we returned to seek the needful repose earned by twenty-four hours of constant change and excitement. And here may be mentioned the establishment whither we were bound, as no doubt there are many such in the English quarter, and this one may be taken as a specimen of the class of *Pensions* or boarding-houses. It is situated in the Avenue d'Essling, one of the numerous streets that radiate from the open space around the Arc de Triomphe, an object which is itself visible from all parts of the city, and therefore a useful landmark for the stranger. The house, like all those in the neighbourhood, is of lofty dimensions, and arranged in flats. An outer door, open all day, discloses a passage into a courtyard, where lies the hall-door proper, which, however, is never closed. A narrow winding staircase leads to the different corridors, off which lie each suite of apartments, sitting and bed rooms, kitchen and scullery, &c., but of course the proprietor of a "Pension" caters for the entire establishment, and the latter adjuncts are closed. The custom of the place is that each lodger keeps a key of his own room and a key for common use is hung near the door of the corridor. Late comers find the outer door shut, but they have only to pull a bell and the concierge who lives on the basement story opens it without leaving his room by drawing a connecting pulley. Happily in our case the number of the house, 21, could be easily remembered by recalling the well-known game of cards, and thus with the Arc de Triomphe as a rallying point, and *vingt-et-un*

as a mnemonic, one could not fail to reach home safely. The charge for board is at a fixed tariff of 12 francs a day each for married couples, and 18 for single folks, the bed room is 6 francs extra, making a total of 30 or 24 francs a-day as the case may be. Our bill (for two) for six days amounted to £6. 10*s*., which we maintain was a reasonable charge under the circumstances, and £6 in addition covered our sight-seeing expenses.

On Monday, the 17th of June, we commenced our peregrinations betimes, visiting the handsome chapel of St. Augustin and the famous Madeleine with its chaste (?) sculpture of the Conception. At midday, when according to Parisian fashion, breakfast is eaten by the million, we repaired for lunchen to one of Duval's Cafés and partook of a thoroughly light and digestible French repast at a cost less than would be charged for the plainest breakfast in a London hotel Thus refreshed, we went shop-gazing along the Rue Royale and the Rue de Rivoli—thence past the ruins of the Tuileries to the river-side, where we took the tram to Notre Dame. Having examined this historic pile we paid a brief visit to the Morgue (as usual untenanted when a stranger goes there), and glanced at the horrible photographs, at the entrance, of those who last occupied the ghastly slabs within the glass partition. Next we took the boat up the river to the Pont d'Alma, passing under no less than seven bridges and obtaining a good view of the many public buildings, the Hotel de Ville, the Louvre, and the Palace of the Legion of Honour. Traces of the work of the vile Commune abounded on all sides and saddened the otherwise bright and beautiful panorama. It was now nearly 3 o'clock, and we devoted the afternoon to a first inspection of the Exhibition. Tickets are procurable in little stalls erected near the various entrances; the vendors making some slight per centage on the franc charged.

As we had entered from the river-side the widened bridge had to be crossed to the Exhibition building, and here we found a dense throng seemingly expectant of some one of note approaching. Accordingly we had scarcely taken up a place in the passage formed by the crowd when the Shah slowly moved past, attended by his suite and a French official. Just at this moment one of his suite either wanted to address His Majesty or forgot himself so far as to walk too closely, whereupon he was waived back imperiously by the Shah who looked as if he would have liked to "cut off his head with a carving knife." The Shah was dressed plainly in the loose black Persian costume and big hat so well-known to Londoners, but without ornament of any kind. He had that day visited the Exhibition to purchase articles, and "sold to the Shah" was the legend in many languages we found placed conspicuously on articles the most elegant and expensive in the various National Sections. On this our first visit we were more inclined to survey the place as a whole from every coign of vantage, and certainly the view from the Trocadero is one that appeals against such a cursory glance as we only found time to bestow upon it. We had now to walk home, a distance of a mile, for neither cab nor seat in tram could be obtained. This indeed is the one blot in Paris life, means of locomotion are quite disproportionate to the requirements of those willing to pay, and thus pedestrianism is an indispensable qualification in holiday visitors. Nothing daunted by fatigue and renovated by the excellent table-d'hôte dinner in the "pension," we organized a party to the Hippodrome, close by the river entrance of the Exhibition. This is a monster building in eliptic shape, affording seats to some 8,000 people nightly. It is in fact not a circus in any sense, but a classical revival of the Isthmaian games. Chariot and horse races are run with every appearance of reality, and the performances of acrobats are surpassingly wonderful.

18th June.—This was the morning of the funeral of the late King of

Hanover, but before taking up a position to witness it, we paid an hour's visit to the Panorama of Paris during the siege. Admission is 2 francs, and we at once pronounced it the best money's worth in a city of wonders. Before mounting to the central platform, the visitor is shown down a dark passage and there facing him is a street scene during the Commune, terrible in its vivid and ghastly effect. The soldiers are clearing the streets and an old man with a fearful gash on his bald head is endeavouring to shield some helpless women and children, who fall indiscriminately under the cruel bullets—who but the French would first enact such scenes and then portray them? Any description of the Panorama would be vague and unsatisfactory. It must be seen to be understood. Close by are actual or mimic fortifications with guns on platforms in the act of firing through shattered embrasures—figures of troops of all arms, as large as life, in all the attitudes of attention to duty, or as victims to the incessant bombardment; some being carried off on stretchers, others watching intently the opposing army or anxiously awaiting the bursting of a descending shell. All around are the well known landmarks of the city, the Arc de Triomphe, the brazen Dome of the Invalides, and the twin towers of Notre Dame, and beyond stretches away the beautiful country crowned here and there by the Prussian Redoubts marked by white cloudlets from the continuous cannonade; and the puzzle of the spectacle is, examine the view from any point you like, it will be found almost impossible to define where material objects end and the pictorial begins. The building containing the Panorama is at the bottom of the Champs Elysées, and we had scarcely reached the top when the head of the funeral procession began to move off. First came cavalry, then several regiments or detachments, with their massed bands in front, playing a plaintive but magnificent dead march, then the Catafalque (the same that had been used for Monsieur Thiers) with the coffin of the dead King, followed by his son and the Prince of Wales on foot, attended by a numerous staff and the Corps Diplomatique, the sombre pageant being closed by artillery and cavalry with bands playing the same mournful melody. At this moment rain descended in torrents and drenched the solemn train of mourners and troops, and dispersed the crowds of sightseers. After luncheon we sallied forth once again to the Exhibition, reaching it by tram-car at a cost of three halfpence. Here we remained during the afternoon, closely and religiously inspecting two or three sections, each half a mile in extent, and carrying away a confused idea of the wealth and wonders of the universe. After dinner some of the party took required rest, while *we* (in a journalistic sense) visited the Jardin de Mabile. Admission is 5 francs, and worse money's worth is not to be had in Paris. The gardens are prettily lighted, but the dancing is simply an exhibition of professional indelicacy. The sole object seems to be to knock off the hats of the onlookers while the Bacchante spins round on the other, or if a male dancer joins the revel, a wild reel is executed so confusedly that the spectator sees nothing but legs and arms.

19th June.—The easiest, cheapest, and pleasantest method of seeing Paris from north to south and east to west is to travel on top of a tram-car, obtaining from the conductor a "correspondence" ticket. Armed with this the tourist can travel from one end of Paris to the other on different lines for three pence. We intended devoting this day to the object in question, but were prevented by rain. Making a virtue therefore of the necessity we took refuge in the Palais Royal and in the Louvre. The beautiful jewel-shops of the Palais Royal are attractive resorts for visitors, but should be inspected by gaslight to be seen to perfection. We invested in some trinklets and toys from a Moorish

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merchant, by no means costly, though they looked invaluable. The most delicate filigree work in gilt or silvered ware, such as bracelets, necklaces, scent bottles, &c., cost only a few francs, and a little bottle labelled and in shape as containing champagne, but on drawing the cork a pretty paper fan springs out, was purchased for a shilling. Having wandered leisurely through the endless galleries of the Louvre, only stopping to examine the most famous pictures and sculpture, we once more betook ourselves to the Exhibition to pass the afternoon. On this occasion we made a round of the pictures and photograps, a unique collection, and then inspected the various structures in the Street of Nations, and wound up with the American "machinery in motion." Near this point stand some specimens of the new model Gatling gun in which weapon we take such personal interest, and were enabled to express this feeling in an unexpected manner One of the curious inventions exhibited by the clever Yankees is a writing machine, to all appearance a musical instrument played like a piano. A slip of paper is inserted, and while a sentence is being propounded, a young lady machinist manipulates the notes and immediately produces what has been said neatly printed and punctuated. Being invited to test the machine, we pronounced the following eulogium :—"The Gatling gun is the best mitrailleur in the universe. It is capable of being fired at the rate of 1,000 rounds a minute, a rate which was attained lately at Chester during experiments." Scarcely had the last word been uttered when the slip of paper was drawn out, with the sentence in print! Whereupon we anticipated the judgment of Paris, by affixing it to one of the guns. We had lunched at home so heartily, that we determined to be satisfied with some light refreshment before going to the Opera, and while in search of a place of entertainment we came upon the "Café du High Life," which we accordingly avoided, and entered instead the "Grand Restaurant de Paris," a gaudily decorated establishment, but none the less reasonable in its charges. We had been told that tickets for the Opera were obtainable sometimes in these hotels, disposed of by persons who found it inconvenient to attend, but there were none to be had, and as places had to be booked at least a week in advance there seemed to be no possible chance of seeing the Opera. However, on "information given," we boldly mounted the steps of the grand entrance, under the sun-like rays of the electric light, and sought an office where "tickets to view the staircase" are sold. Having obtained these for 2*s.* 6*d.* each, we were admitted at once, and from the various tiers were thus enabled to watch the entry of the world of fashion, and to examine the magnificent hall and staircase. But we were not to be baulked of seeing the Opera itself, so acting on hints received we "tipped" one of the female attendants, and were ushered by her into one of the amphitheatre loges. Nor even then were we quite satisfied, as it did not command a good view of the stage, but for another small fee we were conducted to a better loge, where not only could the strains of Krantz be heard, but her inimitable acting in the "Huguenots," could be seen to the best advantage. This was a fitting conclusion to a day spent within a stone's throw of the scene of the Slaughter of St. Bartholomew.

20th June.—It was a bright and beautiful morning, and after an early dip in one of the numerous public baths near the pension, we endeavoured to gain admittance to the staircase of the Arc de Triomphe, but being alone, the old attendant would not permit us to mount. It had happened lately that someone had committed suicide, when alone, by flinging himself from the top, and thus a peremptory order had been issued that people can only go the top of the monument in company.

Having purchased *Le Figaro*, we found it announced *in six languages* that there would be a grand review of the Army of Paris in the afternoon, and as, of course, it became imperative to witness such a sight, we had

to commit the extravagance of agreeing to pay £2 for a carriage to take us to the Bois de Boulogne, but as the hiring was a joint-stock affair, it did not come to much after all. Some of the party walked, and we, rendezvoused shortly after noon under some shady timber, on the border of Longchamps, exactly opposite the Grand Race-Stand and the saluting point. The day was hot as a tropical one, but until the review commenced, we enjoyed the grateful shade. The programme of the day, as given in the *Figaro*, was faithfully carried out and may here be reproduced, as follows :—

"Marshal McMahon will review this day, 20th of June, at the Longchamps race-course, the troops forming the Paris Army. The Marshall will start, on horseback, from Bagatelle, cross-road, at a quarter past two p.m. The generals whose troops do not appear at the review, the military attachés and foreign officers will form his Staff. He will arrive on the race-course at half-past two precisely. On his arrival, a battery placed on the bank of the Seine, and another from Mont-Valérien, will fire a salute of twenty-one guns, amidst drum-beating and clarion-ringing. The Marshall will ride at once in front of the troops, drawn up in the following manner: 57 battalions of infantry (or about 27,000 men), arrayed in three lines; 18 batteries of artillery (108 guns), arrayed in a parallel line behind the infantry; 55 squadrons of cavalry (5,500 men), on the left of the artillery, and extending towards the Seine. The whole under the immediate command of General Baron Aymard, Governor of Paris, who comes at two o'clock to inspect the troops rapidly, before going to meet the Marshall. He will be recognizable by a fanon (white flag) held behind him by a horseman. After having rapidly reviewed all the troops, the Marshall will return and place himself, with all his Staff, in front of the stand, and the troops will then march past."

The battalion of St.-Cyr led the way, and more perfect step could not be maintained by any corps in the world. The students of St. Cyr are also formed into cavalry, and, under General Hanrion, dashed gaily past. The field-artillery, though rather lightly horsed, went by in a workmanlike manner, and the troops, as a body, looked fit and ready to sustain their old reputation as indefatigable companies. Many of the regiments, we learned subsequently, had left their distant barracks early in the morning, and, content with a cup of coffee and some bread, they remained throughout this broiling day under arms, and returned at night to a well-earned meal.

With the aid of glasses, the Marshal and his brilliant Staff were easily recognizable. Beside him rode the Shah on a white Arab steed, and other royal personages, notably the King of Portugal, and princes, and ministers, and foreign officers, innumerable. The British Military Attaché and another English general were also present. Whilst the grand stand glowed in the elegant costumes of the *élite* of Paris. But as a back-ground to the picture, Mont-Valérien rose behind, in all its gloomy grandeur, recalling to the mind irrepressibly that we beheld a beaten army, although reorganized, and a crushed nation, although recuperated.

As may be imagined, the number of vehicles that brought spectators to the review far exceeded the number that passed us on their return from the Grand Prix on Sunday. It was indeed a marvellous sight; from the top of the Arc de Triomphe (where hundreds had already taken up their positions when, with better luck, we mounted it on return from Longchamps), far as the eye reached, carriages and cabs seemed formed in endless column, while pedestrians, in countless numbers, dispersed to the four quarters of the city from this central point.

Instead of remaining for the table-d'hôte dinner, we took a *voiture*, with the intention of dining at one of Duval's restaurants in the Boule-

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vard Sebastopol, close to the Théâtre de la Porte St.-Martin, but finding this establishment completely inaccessible, were fain to partake of any food procurable elsewhere. After a vain search, we entered a restaurant brightly lit up, and enticing to the eye, but, alas, the beef was uneatible, and out of the depths of our indignation and empty stomachs came the monosyllable *cheval*. This created an unseemly disturbance, for having said it, we adhered to the provoking word and refused to pay.

We thus lost our dinner as well as temper, and in this excited frame of mind, entered the Théâtre de la Renaissance, by mistake for the other—nor was the error discovered until the close of the first piece. However, we were not to be defeated in this way, and by wondrous signs and fragmentary French, we discovered that the entrance to the Théâtre de la Porte St.-Martin, although under the same roof, lay round the corner.

The second act of "Round the World in 80 Days" was in progress when we entered, and yet we were amply rewarded for the trouble taken, as those who have seen that wonderful play and know the story, will vouch. The scenery and acting were admirable, and the house rang with uncontrolled laughter throughout the varying incidents. In the Indian scene, the stage was turned into a temporary cage, representing trees and bushwood so ingeniously, that when real tigers appeared and roared melodiously, the audience were for a moment in a tremor of anxiety. Fortunately we had ordered a cab to meet us near Duval's establishment, and there we found the faithful jarvey, whose charge for the three miles to the Avenue d'Essling, at midnight, was only half-a-crown.

21st June.—The forenoon was passed in shopping, when we failed to obtain an order to visit the Fortifications, as intended. Our Military Attaché declared this impossible unprovided with an order from the Foreign Office, and added: "Even if you were admitted into Mont-Valérien, only the obsolete portions of the Fort would be shown." The afternoon, as usual, was spent in the grounds of the Exhibition. After dinner, we took the tram from the Arc de Triomphe to the end of the Boulevard Haussmann, and strolled leisurely through the brilliant streets, and after stopping at a café for some refreshment, sipping our coffee in the street, and noting the wonderful variety of strangers of all nations likewise engaged, we entered the Concert de l'Orangerie, near the Tuileries, and enjoyed a magnificent open-air performance. At one end of the ground, forty *bohémiennes et bohémiens* from Moscow, sang harsh national melodies or played strange instruments, and at the other, was erected a temporary orchestra for the excellent string-band, under the leadership of Keler Bela. The garden was lit up with lime-light, and showed thousands of people seated on chairs or lounging about for hours, *sub jove*, without fear of cold in that dry and balmy atmosphere. To add to the fairy-like brilliancy of the scene, the neighbouring fountains of the Place de la Concorde were illuminated in colours from the Admiralty building opposite, which had itself an illuminated anchor and the letters "R. F." on the frontage, in honour of a reception given by the Minister of Marine.

22nd June.—This being our last day in Paris, we were up and about before eight a.m. We had organized a party of six to visit the suburbs, especially Versailles. For three halfpence each, we travelled on top of a tram-car for three miles to the station at Mont-Parnasse—and then with second-class tickets, we were enabled to sit on top of the carriages (where there are covered seats for excursionists) and view the lovely country passed through on the line to Versailles. Arrived here, we took a carriage for an hour's drive before breakfast, and visited the Park. After a fruit-breakfast we entered the Palace and roamed through the interminable galleries, admiring chiefly the magnificent ceilings and

recumbent marble statue of Napoleon the Great. The Gallery of Battles and the Salle des Miroirs we found to be more curious than interesting. We also visited the Chapel, with its historic paintings and gorgeous roof. We next took train to St.-Cloud and viewed the ruins of that ill-fated Palace which, lying between the fire of friend and foe, was struck by a shell from the French batteries and destroyed. Here we entered a river-boat and steamed gaily past the Bois de Boulogne and the pretty villages of Sèvres, Auteuil and Passy to the Pont des Invalides, where we disembarked and visited the Tomb of Napoleon. Thence we made a rapid visit to the French Royal Academy—a gallery which occupies the the building of the old Exhibition. Never was there such a collection of nude figures as are on view here, as to which it may be said to mean that "France expects every man to do his duty." After dinner we bid farewell to our friends at the Pension, and once more in the train moving rapidly homewards, we began to feel that fatigue of body and mind which release from the whirligig of excitement of the last week could not fail to bring.

S. O. P.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

LEITFADEN FÜR DEN UNTERRICHT IN DER BEFESTIGUNGSKUNST AN DEN KONIGLICHEN KRIEGSSCHULEN. Von Schueler, Hauptmann, *à la suite* der IV. Ingr.-Inspection, Lehrer an der Kriegsschule, Amclam. Berlin, 1878. (Siegfried, Mittler & Son.)

But for the rather unhandy shape, these "Outlines of Instruction in Fortification" constitute one of the best text-books we have seen. The term "fortification" is accepted by Captain Schueler in its widest sense, and the *heads* of the subject, technical and tactical, are arranged in a brief but comprehensive manner, in short paragraphs, illustrated with woodcuts where required. Many useful practical memoranda are given of details often forgotten in more diffuse works.

LA FORTIFICATION DU CHAMP DE BATAILLE. Par Lieut.-General Brialmont, Inspecteur Général des Fortifications et du Corps du Génie de Belgique. Avec un Atlas de dix-neuf planches. Brussels, 1879. (Librairie Militaire, C. Muquardt.)

This, unquestionably, is one of the most important additions to military literature which have been made for some time past. That the tactical value of improvised cover might be justly estimated, without exaggeration on the one part or ignorant depreciation on the other, it was requisite that the subject should be treated with greater fullness and exactitude than had hitherto been attempted. This, General Brialmont has accomplished. In some four hundred octavo pages he has given full details of the experiments lately made at the engineer-schools in Austria, France, Germany and Belgium, and of the experience acquired during the last wars, including hitherto unpublished particulars of the Russo-Turkish War, some of them supplied by General Todleben. M. Brialmont considers that improvised fortification must now be considered an *essential branch* of tactics, although, like other advantages, it may of course be abused, and excess result in defeat. The conditions under which it is applicable both to the attack and defence are discussed by the light of the most recent experience, with the discriminating judgment for which the distinguished writer is remarkable. For these we must refer the reader to the work itself. We observe that General Brialmont, speaking as a tactician rather than an engineer, considers

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that a large increase in the effective of engineer-troops will be absolutely necessary in the next war. Except as regards titular honours, he would recognize bnt one sort of infantry, every man of which should carry a pioneer's tool as part of his regular equipment, and would have the battalion of chasseurs or jagers, which in Continental armies forms part of each infantry division, replaced by a four-company battalion of engineers.

OBITUARY.

General Edward Rowley Hill, colonel of the 5th Foot, died at Brighton on the 10th September, aged 82.

Major-General John Simpson, C.B., died at Fyning, near Petersfield, on the 8th September.

General Alexander Tulloch, C.B., died on the 15th September, at 29 Dawson Place, Bawswater, aged 90.

Colonel Arthur Leslie, C.B., late of the 40th Regiment, died on the 12th September, at Half Moon Street, aged 56.

Lieutenant-General Henry Cooper, colonel of the 45th Foot, died on the 24th August, at Bottesham Hall, Cambridgeshire. He commanded the reserve battalion, 45th Regiment, in the Kaffir war in 1846-7, and a wing of the regiment throughout the Kaffir war of 1850-3 (medal).

Major-General Thomas Oakes, C.B., died at Farnham on the 22nd August, aged 51.

Major-General Charles V. Wilkieson, Royal (late Madras) Engineers, died at Inverness on the 23rd August.

Lieutenant-Colonel Thomas A. P. Dirom, retired full pay, late Royal (Bengal) Artillery, died at Cleughead, Annan, on the 21st August, aged 47.

Surgeon-General William H. S. Burn, late Madras Army, died at Budleigh Salterton, on the 24th August, aged 63.

Retired Admiral of the Fleet, the Right Hon. Thomas Maitland, Earl and Viscount of Lauderdale, Viscount Maitland, Baron Maitland of Thirlestane, county Berwick, and Baron Thirlestane and Boltoun in the peerage of Scotland, died on September 1, at Thirlestane Castle, Lauder, Berwick, in his 76th year.

Lieutenant-General Richard King Clavell, R.M.L.I., died suddenly at Gosport on the 1st September, in his 59th year.

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PROMOTIONS AND APPOINTMENTS.

NAVY.

Admiralty, Aug. 24.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Lieut. H. S. Mandeville has been this day placed on the retired list, with permission to assume the rank and title of retired commander.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of April 30, 1877, Engineer W. Herd has been placed on the retired list of his rank from the 17th inst.

Aug. 28.

The undermentioned officers have been promoted to the rank of navigating lieuts. in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of July 12:—C. D. A. Morshead, H. C. Roche.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of April 30, 1877, Engineer J. Taylor has been placed on the Retired List of his rank from the 16th inst.

Sep. 6.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Com. D. Boyle has been this day placed on the Retired List, with permission to assume the rank and title of retired captain; Lieut. W. R. Cresswell has been this day placed on the Retired List of his rank under the provisions of the same Order in Council.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Orders in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, and April 30, 1877, Engineer D. Millar has this day been placed on the Retired List, with permission to assume the rank and title of retired chief engineer.

Sep. 7.

Staff Surg. C. A. Lees, M.D., has been promoted to the rank of Fleet-surg. in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of Sep. 1.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Lieut. T. B. Lacy has been this day placed on the Retired List, with permission to assume the rank and title of retired commander.

Sep. 9.

Engineer G. Sullivan has been promoted to the rank of chief engineer in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of 18th ult.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Staff Com. T. A. Hull has been placed on the Retired List of his rank from 23rd ult.

Sep. 11.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 4, 1875, Inspector-Gen. of Hospitals and Fleets T. R. Pickthorn has this day been placed on the Retired List.

Sep. 13.

Engineer W. Bryan has this day been promoted to the rank of chief engineer in her Majesty's Fleet

Sep. 14.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Fleet Surg. W. N. Brake has this day been placed on the Retired List, with permission to assume the rank and title of deputy inspector-general of Hospitals and Fleets on the Retired List.

Sep. 17.

Staff Com. T. A. Hull, who was placed on the Retired List from the 23rd ult., has been allowed to assume the rank and title of retired commander from that date.

Sep. 18.

The following annual promotions from her Majesty's yacht Victoria and Albert have been made, with seniority from the 13th instant:—Lieut. E. D. Maude to be com. in her Majesty's Fleet. Sub-

Lieuts. St. J. R. H. Parlby, R. A. J. Montgomerie, H. E. P. Cust to be lieutenants in her Majesty's Fleet.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Lieut. S. R. Hesketh has this day been placed on the Retired List of his rank.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of April 30, 1877, Engineer J. Elder has been placed on the Retired List of his rank from the 11th inst.

Sept. 19.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty,s Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Lieut. C. C. Wood has this day been placed on the Retired List of his rank.

Whitehall, Sept. 19.

The Queen has been pleased to direct Letters Patent to be passed under the Great Seal granting unto Admiral Sir W. Fanshawe-Martin, Bart., G.C.B., the office or place of Rear-Admiral of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the Admiralty thereof, in the room of Admiral Sir W. J. H. Johnstone deceased.

Captains—J. C. Wilson, A.D.C., of H.M.S. Thunderer, to be commodore of the second class and senior officer of H.M's ships and vessels on the Australian station, vice Hoskins, period of service expired. E. J. Church, to Royal Naval College, for study.

Commanders—S. C. Darwin, to Lord Warden. C. McLaughlin, to the Royal Naval College, for study.

Lieut.-in-Command—Victor E. J. B Von Donop, to Decoy.

Lieutenants—E. J. V. Pritchard, to be inspecting-lieut. of Coastguard at Mablethorpe, vice Ellis; G. A. Ellis, to Terror; A. MacLeod, to Assistance, vice Pritchard; G W. Hill, C. J. Norcock, and A. G. Kempe, to Hecla. C. J. M. Conybeare, H. Chamberlain, H. Stewart, H. R. Adams, and H. S. Lake, to Vernon (additional, to qualify for torpedo service); E. H. Marsh, A. J. Allen, A. A. C. Galloway, Algernon, Evan-Thomas, G. Langford, J. H. T. Burke, E. W. Lloyd, H. C. Reynolds, H. R. Lees, R. S. Lowry, P. F. Tillard, G. E. Harrison, G. T. Wingfield, H. W. Savile, A. L. Babington, and Charles Wyndham, to Excellent (to qualify in gunnery). F. A. Blackett, (from Boscawen), A. Dove, and the Hon. A. E. Bethell, to Atalanta; W. V. Bayly, to Boscawen, vice Blackett.; R. W. Watt, G. A. Warleigh, G. H. Miller, T. Y. Greet, H. A. Warren, and L. A. W. Barnes Lawrence, to Royal Naval College, for study; D. A. Richmond, and F. T. Barr, to Excellent (additional, to date Oct. 14); H. M. C. Festing, to Impregnable.

Sub-Lieuts.—L. G. Tufnell, to Atalanta; F. St. L. Luscombe, and T. H. Heming (for navigating duties), to Decoy; P. E. Fisher, and R. H. Curties, to Atalanta; F. A. Valentiue, and A. L. Scott (for navigating duties), to Boadicea; Henry L. Bethune, to Alexandra; F. W. Loane, to Cockatrice (for navigating duties); Morris E. L. Thompson, to Temeraire; W. S. Bastard, to Pert (for navigating duties); H. Baker, to Crocodile (for navigating duties); A. K. du Pré, to Active; W. B. Fawckner, to Jumna (for navigating duties); C. W. de la P. Beresford, to Alert: John F. Stuart, to Sheldrake (for navigating duties).

Navigating Lieutenant—B. S. Bradley, to Hecla.

Naval Cadet—W. G. Van Ingen, to Bellerophon.

Chaplains—The Rev. W. Gunter, R.A., to Euphrates; the Rev. R. O'D. Ross-Lewin, M.A., L.T.H., to Jumna.

Fleet Surgeons—F. W. Davis, from Plymouth Hospital, to Duncan, additional for service with Royal Marines at Walmer; A. B. Messer, M.D., from Téméraire, to Plymouth Royal Naval Hospital, vice Davis; C. Keenan, from Royal Adelaide, to Portsmouth Dockyard; J. Long, M.D., from Swift-

sure to Durham, vice Brake, period of service expired: R. R. Siccama, to Warrior; W. J. Eames, to Royal Adelaide; Doyle M. Shaw, from Serapis, to Duke of Wellington.

Staff Surgeons—M. Coates, to President, for temporary service at Yarmouth Hospital; W. Roche, to Hecla; C. J. Devonshire, B.A., M.B., to Valiant; G. W. J. Sutherland, M.A., to Serapis: George B. Beale, to Atalanta.

Surgeons—C. E. Geoghegan, to Vulture; W. C. Sandys, to Bittern; Mathew F. Ryan, from Martin to Pallas; H. M. Nash, to St. Vincent, for Martin; E. E. Mahon, to Royal Adelaide (additional, for temporary service); N. C. Ross, to Decoy; J. L. Sweetnam, M.D., to Belleisle; G. Hate, to Hecla; S. Keays, to Bellerophon (additional); L. W. Corcoran, B.A., M.B., to Atalanta; J. F. O'Donnell, M.B., B.A., to Thunderer.

Paymaster—J. C. Plow, to Hecla, when commissioned.

Assistant-Paymaster-in-Charge.—R. H. Harris, to Decoy.

Assistant-Paymaster—J. Lyon, to Euphrates.

Engineers—T. Rule, to Duncan; J. Sharpe, to Duncan (for Porcupine); James F. Babb, to Royal Adelaide (for Vivid); E. Irish, to Duke of Wellington (for Ernest); W. H. Moon, to Warrior.

COASTGUARD.

Chief Boatmen—James Spence, (Lynn), to be chief boatman-in-charge at Morster, vice Turner, pensioned; W. Blake (Ardrossan) to be chief boatman-in-charge at Johnshaven (?), vice Hamilton; W. Burn (Minehead) to be chief boatman-in-charge at Watchet, vice Droy, pensioned; J. Berrelle (Ardglass) to be chief boatman in-charge at Dunmore.

Chief Boatman-in-Charge—D. Hamilton, from Johnshaven to Lamlash.

Commissioned Boatmen—S. D. Grant (Ventnor) to be chief boatman at Pevensey, vice Wedge, pensioned: G. Druch (Robin Hood's Bay) to be chief boatman at Lynn, vice Spruce; J. Maher (Wickham Head) to be chief boatman, vice Berrells, promoted: J. McCormick (Moville) to be chief boatman, vice Connell, pensioned.

ROYAL MARINES

Admiralty, Sep. 3rd.

Major-Gen. C. W. Adair, C.B., to be dep.-adjt.-gen. of the Corps. vice Major-Gen. Rodney, C.B., resigned, own request; Major-Gen. Rodney, C.B., from the Supernumerary List, to be major-gen. on fixed establishment; Major-Gen. C W. Adair, C.B., to be super. on appointment as dep.-adjt.-gen.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Orders in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, and April 30, 1877, Chief Engineer R. Madge has been placed on the retired list of his rank from this date.

Sept. 18.

The undermentioned gentlemen have been appointed lieuts. in the Royal Marine Light Infantry:—R. MacDonnell, W. S. Cumming, R. K. W. R, Clavell, C. G. Brittan, J. R. H. Oldfield, E. D. Ormond, L. J. Hadley, C. G. Watson, G. R. C. Booth (Sept. 1).

ROYAL NAVAL ARTILLERY VOLUNTEERS.

Liverpool Brigade—G. H. Barnes, Esq., to be hon. lieut. (Sept. 9.)

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ARMY.

ARMY GAZETTE.

India Office, Aug. 27.

Her Majesty has been pleased to approve of the following promotions among the officers of the Staff Corps and Indian Military Forces made by the Governments in India:—

Brevet.

To be Col.—Lieut.-Col. Charles J. Richards, Madras Infantry; April 13, 1878.

To be Lieut.-Col.—Major Wm. S. Hunt, Madras Staff Corps; July 6, 1878.

Substantive Promotions.

BENGAL STAFF CORPS.

Majors to be Lieut.-Cols.—(Brevet Lieut.-Col.) Charles. Jms. Hughes; May 15, 1878. Walter Musgrave; June 11, 1878. Henry R. B. Worsley; June 13, 1878. Maj. E. Y. Walcott; June 20, 1878. Maj. Alex. McLeod Stewart; June 20, 1878.

Capts. to be Majors—Montagu Clementi; June 11, 1878. Edwd. R. Conolly: June 12, 1878. C. H. Palmer; June 12, 1878. Fdk. P. Worthy; June 12, 1878. Horace M. Evans; June 20, 1878. Richard M. Clifford; June 25, 1878. Chas. L. Woodruff; June 28, 1878.

MADRAS STAFF CORPS.

Majors to be Lieut.-Cols.—H. St. M. Wynch; June 12. 1878. Richard Griffith: June 13, 1878.

Capts. to be Majors—Frederick L. Haleman; May 26, 1878. K. J. L. Mackenze; June 11, 1878. James W. Macdougall; June 11, 1878. James P. James; June 11, 1878. George H. Trevor; June 12, 1878. Matthew M. Bowie; June 12, 1878. Charles H. A. Gower; June 12, 1878. David T. Hatchell; June 12, 1878. Wm. G. Hughes; June 12, 1878. A. T. Woodhouse; June 12, 1878. Alex. S. Grove; June 12, 1878. Henry C. Davies; June 12, 1878. Wm. C. Bayley: June 12, 1878. Chas. J. Watson; June 12, 1878. Thos. H. B. Young; June 25, 1878. Frank J. Wroughton; June 25, 1878. Henry H. H. Hallet; July 4, 1878.

MADRAS ARMY.

Cavalry.

To be Col.—Lieut.-Col. (Brevet Col.) James G. Cookson; May 27, 1878.

To be Lieut.-Col.—Major Henry Fraser; May 27, 1878.

To be Majors—Late 7th Light Cavalry—Capt. (Brevet Major) Wm. Thompson; May 27, 1878. Late 3rd Light Cavalry—Capt. (Brevet Major) John M. Kerr; May 27, 1878.

MADRAS MEDICAL ESTABLISHMENT.

To be Surg.-Majors—Surg. J. A. W. Spence; May 26, 1878.

BOMBAY STAFF CORPS.

To be Lieut.-Cols. — Major (Brevet Lieut.-Col.) Thomas H. Turner (since deceased); June 12, 1878. Maj. Chas. Jameson; June 12, 1878. Major Patrick W. Bannerman; June 13, 1878. Major Wm. A. Gillespie; June 13, 1878. Major Francis J. T. Ross; June 13, 1878.

Captains to be Majors—Joseph Withers; June 4, 1878. Chris. C. Pemberton; June 11, 1878. A. J. Bannerman; June 11, 1878. M. M. Carpendale; June 12, 1878. Henry C. Morse; June 12, 1878. Charles A Cunningham; June 20, 1878.

BOMBAY CAVALRY.

To be Col.—Lieut.-Col. (Brevet Col.) John C. Graves, C.B.; May 25, 1878.

To be Lieut.-Col.—Maj. (Brevet Lieut.-Col.) Stephen William O. Stevens; May 24, 1878.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Aug. 30.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Aug. 31, 1878:—

Grenadier Guards—Capt. and

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Lieut.-Col. and Brevet-Col. Wm. Earle, C.S.I., to be major, vice Brevet Col. C. Alexander, retired on half-pay; Aug. 21, 1878. Lieut. and Capt. Chas. J. Cootes to be capt. and lieut.-col., vice Brevet Col. Earle; Aug. 21, 1878. Lieut. the Honourable Alfred J. F. Egerton resigns his commission. Lieut. Sir Hickman B. Bacon, Bart., resigns his commission.

26th Foot—Capt. Legh R. Phillips retires from the Service, receiving a gratuity.

20th Foot—Capt. Fletcher C. H. Littledale retires from the Service, receiving a gratuity.

86th Foot—Major and Brevet Lieut.-Col. Wm. Knipe retires on half-pay.

Rifle Brigade—Super. Maj. and Brevet Col. Godfrey Clerk to be maj., vice J. F. Henley, placed on temporary half-pay; Aug, 21, 1878.

Staff—Major-Gen. Robert B. Hawley, C.B., to be deputy adjt.-gen. to the Forces, vice Lieut.-Gen. Richard C. H. Taylor, C.B., who vacates that appointment; Oct. 1, 1878.

Ordnance Store Department—Assist. Commissary-Gen. Charles Mills Molony to be deputy commissary-gen., vice William H. H. Scott, deceased; Aug. 10, 1878. Commissary N. R. Raven to be assist. commissary-general, vice Molony; Aug. 10, 1878. Deputy-Commissary Sydney L. D. Smith to be commissary, vice Raven; Aug. 10, 1878. Commissary W. Peel is granted retired pay, from Sept. 1, 1878.

Medical Department—Surgeon Augustus Hewett resigns his commission.

Brevet.

Brevet Col. Robt. J. Eagar, C.B., from Lieut.-Col., retired full pay, 31st Foot, to be major-gen.; July 25, 1870, such antedate not to carry back pay prior to Oct. 1, 1877.

Lieut.-Col. H. P. Montgomery, half pay, late 60th Foot, to be be Col.; Aug. 13, 1878.

The date from which the hon. rank of Lieut.-Col. was granted to Major H. Plummer, late 7th Foot, is Aug. 7, 1878, and not as stated in the Gazette of Aug. 6, 1878.

The undermentioned Officers to have a step of hon. rank on retirement:—

To be Major-Gens.—Brevet Col. Henry C. Johnstone, C.B., Bengal Staff Corps. Brevet Col. Henry A. Dwyer, Bengal Staff Corps. Brevet Col. Robt. F. Webster, Bengal Staff Corps. Brevet Col Leonard R. Christopher, Bengal Staff Corps. Brevet Col. Francis L. Magniac, Madras Staff Corps.

To be Col.—Lieut.-Col. George V. Law. Madras Staff Corps.

Memorandum.

Major and Brevet Lieut.-Col. Wm. Knipe, half-pay, late 86th Foot, retires from the Service by the surrender of his half-pay.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Aug. 30.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Aug. 31, 1878.

Artillery.

Dublin City—Major and Hon. Lieut.-Col. Wm. J. N. Magill to be lieut.col.

The Duke of Edinburgh's Own Edinburgh—Hamilton St. Clair Bower, gent., to be second lieut.

Hampshire—Francis J. H. Barton, gent., to be second lieut.

Royal Sussex—Francis L. H. Sadler, gent., to be second lieut.

Wicklow—Walter S. Tighe, gent., to be second lieut.

Engineers.

Royal Monmouthshire—Edwd. Longworth Lister, gent., to be second lieut.

Infantry.

Royal Bucks—Lieut. George A. S. C. Rose to be capt.

Royal Carnarvon — Sergeant-Major Wm. Gray, from the 23rd Foot, to be quartermaster.

Royal Cumberland—Sub-Lieut. Chris. M. Blackett to be lieut.; March 3, 1877.

Hertford—Lieut. Arthur De S. Hadow, from the 6th Royal Lancashire Militia, to be lieut.; Aug. 20, 1878.

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1st Royal Lancashire—Capt.

Edmund H. S. Gornby is granted the hon. rank of Major.

Leicestershire—Second Lieut. Thos. H. Standbridge to be lieut.

Royal Elthorne, or 5th Middlesex—Capt. and Hon. Maj. Frederic W. Woodall to be major.

2nd Somerset—Lieut. Edwd. Riley to be capt., vice D. H. S. Smith, resigned.

The (King's Own) 2nd Stafford—Arthur J. B. St. Leger, gent., to be second lieut.

3rd (King's Own) Stafford—The first Christian name of Capt. Bass is Hamar, and not Harmar as stated in the London Gazette of Feb. 15, 1870.

1st Warwick—Lieut.-Col. O. A. Grimston is granted the hon. rank of Colonel.

2nd Warwick—Sub-Lieut. John H. Boughton-Leigh, to be lieut.; April 23, 1877.

2nd Royal Lanark—Paymaster James McGregor Hamilton resigns his commission.

The Edinburgh, or Queen's Regiment of Light Infantry—Sub Lieut. Francis J. Douglas to be Lieut.; Aug 16, 1876.

Antrim—Sub-Lieut. George F. D. Fullerton to be lieut.; Dec. 4, 1875.

Royal Dublin City—Maj. Joseph H. Bellew resigns his commission; also is granted the hon. rank of Lieut.-Col., and is permitted to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement.

Galway—Capt. and Hon. Major George W. Maunsell resigns his commission; also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement. Capt. David Ruttledge is granted the hon. rank of Major.

Kildare—William A. Gresson, gent, to be second lieut

North Tipperary—The services of Capt. John K. Ruttledge are dispensed with.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Lancashire Hussars — Lieut. Leopold de Rothschild resigns his commission.

Montgomeryshire—Lieut. Wm. R. M. Wynne resigns his commission; also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement.

Pembroke—Surgeon Thos. H. Rowe resigns his commission.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Aug. 30.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Aug. 31, 1878:—

1st Fifeshire Light Horse—Sub-Lieut. John Gilmour to be lieut.; April 1, 1874.

3rd Aberdeenshire Artillery—The Rev. James M. Mitchell to be acting chap.: July 17, 1878.

14th Devonshire Artillery—Capt. Robert J. G. Simmonds resigns his commission.

3rd Forfarshire Artillery—Sub-Lieut. James Guthrie to be lieut.; Aug. 30, 1876.

10th Kent Artillery—Charles G. Ellis, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

1st Sussex Artillery—Lieut. Frederick Trueman to be capt. Walter C. H. Davis, gent., to be second lieut.

19th Aberdeenshire Rifles—Lieut. John Smith to be capt.

4th Cambridgeshire Rifles—The Rev. Wm. Walker to be acting chaplain.

3rd Administrative Battalion Cheshire Rifles—Capt. Thomas Braddell, 17th Foot, to be adjt., vice Parry, promoted to be major in 22nd Foot; Aug. 16, 1878.

16th Cornwall Rifles—Lieut. H. F. Whitefield to be capt.

6th Cumberland Rifles—William H. Akerigg, gent., to be second lieut.

5th Dumbartonshire Rifles—Hugh M. R. Ewing, gent., to be second lieut.

16th Durham Rifles—Captain Robert Ropner resigns his commission

6th Fifeshire Rifles—Lieut. John Shearer resigns his commission. Hon. Chap. the Rev. David W. Runciman resigns his commission.

5th Hampshire Rifles—Captain George Long resigns his commis-

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sion. Frank Stubington, gent., to be second lieut.

11th Hampshire Rifles—Lieut. Hutchinson W. L. B. Lathom resigns his commission.

31st Lanarkshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Robert Walker to be lieut.; June 2, 1877.

3rd Admin strative Battalion Lancashire Rifles—Surgeon Lionel Booth, M.D., resigns his commission.

6th Administrative Battalion Lancashire Rifles—Major William Henry Goodair to be lieut.-col.

11th Lancashire Rifles—Capt. Spencer Leese resigns his commission. Second Lieut. John P. Goodair to be lieut.

13th Lancashire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Joseph Snape to be capt.

80th Lancashire Rifles—Lieut. Henry Cooper to be capt.

13th Lincolnshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Edward Leeds to be lieut.; Oct. 11, 1878.

16th Middlesex Rifles—Sub-Lieut. (super.) William T. Angel to be lieut. (super.); April 4, 1878.

19th Middlesex Rifles—Herbert G. Cronk, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

20th Middlesex Rifles—Lieut Frederic C. Dobbing resigns his commission.

29th Middlesex Rifles—Lieut. Charles St. John K. Roche to be capt. Sub-Lieut. Thomas T. Hopkinson to be lieut.; June 16, 1877. Second Lieut. William J. E. Herbert to be lieut.

46th Middlesex Rifles—Captain Henry Paul Hawkshaw to be maj. Lieut. Edward W. Collins to be capt.

6th Somersetshire Rifles—Hon. Assist.-Surg. Charles V. Hitchins, whose resignation appeared in the London Gazette of July 31, 1878. is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the Corps on his retirement.

6th Staffordshire Rifles—Second Lieut. William Tunnicliffe to be lieut.

2nd Administrative Battalion Wiltshire Rifles—Capt. Chas. W. S. Lowndes, 93rd Foot, to be adjt., vice Bradford, deceased; Aug. 17, 1878.

12th Wiltshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. John E. Gladstone resigns his commission.

32nd West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—The date of the promotion of Lieut. Thomas Beardsell to be capt., which appeared in the London Gazette of Aug. 6, 1878, is Aug. 7, "1878," not "1877" as therein stated.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Sept. 3, 1878.

Staff.

Lieut.-Gen. Richard C.H. Taylor, C.B., having been promoted to Lieut.-Gen., will vacate his appointment as Deputy Adjt.-Gen. to the Forces from Oct. 1, 1878, inclusive.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Sept. 10.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Sept. 11.

Artillery.

Royal Pembroke—Capt. A. J. Lavie, Royal Artillery, to be adjt., vice P. Lewes, resigned; Aug 29, 1878.

Suffolk—Jasper J. A. Milner-Gibson, gent., to be second lieut.

1st, or South Tipperary—John Henry Barnes, gent, to be second lieut.

Waterford—Capt. M. O'Donnell late Quartermaster, is permitted to commute his retired allowance: Aug. 17, 1878.

Infantry.

1st Durham—The undermentioned officers to be lieuts.:—Sub-Lieut. Charles McKenzie C. Haslip: June 24, 1877. Sub Lieutenant John Armstone B. Denny; June 25, 1877. Second Lieutenant Montagu Cradock. Second Lieut. Alfred Morris. Second Lieut. W. H. Scott.

2nd or North Durham—Lieut. C. D. Edwards resigns his commission. The undermentioned Second Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—P. P. Pryse. Duncan Home Morrieson.

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Royal East Middlesex—Capt. A. Dudingston Boyd to be Major.

Royal Elthorn or 5th Middlesex—The undermentioned Sub-Lieutenants to be lieuts.—E Tatton Pakenham: Feb. 24, 1877. H. S. Fleming; May 23, 1877. A. J. Henry Murray; May 24, 1877.

Nottingham, or Royal Sherwood Foresters—Beverley Newcomen, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Royal Surrey—Sub-Lieut. W. H. Derville Rich to be lieut.; April 18, 1877.

2nd Royal Surrey—Second Lieutenant W. J. Hampden Chawner resigns his commission. Lieut. Frederick Foster Bateman to be capt.. Sub Lieut. A. E. Jenkins to be lieut.; Oct. 4, 1876.

Royal Sussex—Emil Dabney Heinemann, gent., to be second lieut.

Worcester—For Sub Lieut. C. Andrew Rouse-Boughton-Knight, from the Hereford Militia, to be lieut; July 13, 1878, Read, Sub Lieut. Charles Andrew Rouse-Boughton-Knight, from the Hereford Militia, to be lieut.; July 13, 1878, with date in the General Militia Service of Dec. 2, 1876.

3rd West York—Sub Lieut. P. Tatham Armitage to be lieut.; June 4 1877.

The Highland Light Infantry—Capt. George Meakin is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement; June 26, 1878.

1st Royal Lanark—Capt. G. J. Gossling is granted the hon. rank of Major.

Dublin County—Sub-Lieut. G. Colthurst Vesey to be lieut.; Jan. 10, 1877.

Kilkenny—Capt. and Hon. Maj. Brent Neville to be major.

Monaghan—Lieut. H. E. Ed. Wood-Wright to be capt.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Leicestershire—Lieut.-Col. the Hon. Charles Powys resigns his commission; also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Sept. 10.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Sept. 11, 1878.

1st Carnarvonshire Artillery—Griffith Richard Griffith, gent, to be acting surg.

17th Lancashire Artillery—Sub-Lieut. Samuel Atkinson to be lieut.; December 15, 1875.

1st Worcestershire Artillery—Second Lieut. Charles Freeman Thomas resigns his commission.

1st Cheshire Engineers—Sub-Lieut. Joseph Lamb to be lieut. Dec. 15, 1875.

1st Durham Engineers—Sub-Lieut. A. Smith resigns his commission.

5th Devonshire Rifles—James Murray Foster, gent., to be second lieut.

6th Dumbartonshire Rifles—Capt. James Denny resigns his commission.

9th Essex Rifles—Alfred Dickey Faulkner, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

14th Glamorganshire Rifles—Lieut. Thomas Phillips to be capt., Aug. 21, 1878. A. James Howell, gent., to be lieut.: Aug. 21, 1878. J. Phillips, gent., to be second lieut.; Aug. 21, 1878. Wyndham Williams, gent., to be second lieut. (super.): Aug. 21, 1878.

20th Glamorganshire Rifles—Lieut. Henry Ellis Collins, from the 14th Glamorganshire Rifle Volunteer Corps, to be capt.

4th Haddingtonshire Rifles—Lieut. A. Dunlop resigns his commission.

9th Lancashire Rifles—Lieut. W. Travers Pickmere resigns his commission.

23rd Lancashire Rifles—Lieut. D. Edwardes Griffiths to be capt.

33rd Lancashire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Frederick G. Samson to be lieut.; Feb. 10, 1877. Sub-Lieu- W. J. Pratt to be lieut: March 7, 1877. Sub Lieut. W. McKerrow Hall to be lieut.; March, 28, 1877.

9th Lincolnshire Rifles—Lieut. W. Seppings Clitherow resigns his commission. Second Lieut.

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Robert Collinson Isle resigns his commission.

3rd London Rifles—Lieut. G. Chaffey resigns his commission. Lieut. Alfred Isaac Mack to be captain.

16th Middlesex Rifles—Sub Lieut. Charles Russell Shore to be lieut.; April, 4, 1877.

2nd Monmouthshire Rifles—Lieut. A. R. Verity to be capt.

8th Northamptonshire Rifles—Lieut. Thomas Willoughby resigns his commission.

6th Northumberland Rifles—Lieut. W. Oswald Charlton resigns his commission.

8th Northumberland Rifles—Lieut. John Aincbcliffe to be capt. Second Lieut. John Forbes Wilkins to be lieut. Second Lieut. J. Macleod Campbell to be lieut. Second Lieut. Charles Wardrope Taylor to be lieut.

2nd Radnorshire Rifles—S. W. Williams, Esq., to be capt.

5th Administrative Battalion West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Capt. Henry Lockner Brett, 76th Foot, to be adjt., vice Croker King, whose period of service as adjt. has expired; Aug. 22, 1878.

35th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—The Rev. Henry John Longsdon to be acting chap.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Sept. 13.

Where not otherwise specified the following commissions bear date Sept. 14.

45th Regt. of Foot—Lieut.-Gen. Sir Daniel Lysons, K.C.B., to be col., vice Lieut.-Gen. H. Cooper, deceased; Aug. 25, 1878.

3rd Dragoon Guards—Lieut. J. G. Woodley, from the North Cork Militia, to be second lieut, in succession to lieut. F. H. D. B. Bellwood, promoted.

5th Dragoon Guards—Lieut. F. Augustus Cracroft-Amcotts to be captain, vice W. R. Truman, seconded for service as an adjt. of the Auxiliary Forces; Aug. 9, 1878.

6th Dragoon Guards—Major and Brevet Lieut.-Col. Stanley de Astel Calvert Clarke, from the 4th Hussars, to be major, vice J. Goldie, seconded from Aug. 12, 1878, for service on the Staff.

3rd Hussars—Lieut. St. Clair Oswald, from the Fife Artillery Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. W. C. Owen, a Probationer for the Indian Staff Corps

5th Lancers—Capt. and Brevet Major R. F. Morrison should have been so described in the Gazette of Aug. 20, 1878. Sub Lieut. A. Gerald Chapman to be lieut; Sept. 11, 1877.

17th Lancers—Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Col. Drury Curzon Drury-Lowe retires on half-pay.

Royal Engineers—In consequence of the death, on July 10, 1878, of Major G. Swetenham, the promotion of the following officers as notified in the Gazette of July 26 is antedated to July 11, 1878:—Major G. V. Siveright, Capt. N. Arnott. The promotion of the following officers as notified in the Gazette of Aug. 23, 1878, is antedated to July 14, 1878, vice Major E. H. Steward, promoted, viz.:—Major H. S. Clive. Capt. G. R. Walker, on the Super. List. Capt. R. C. T. Hildyard, on the Super. List. Capt. D. Mac N. Campbell. Capt. Arthur Blayney Coddington to be major, vice G. M. Collins, retired upon temporary half pay: Aug. 24, 1878. Lieutenant Charles Claude Clifton Barlow to be capt., vice A. B. Coddington; Aug. 24, 1878.

Grenadier Guards—Secd. Lieut. Henry Goulbourn, from the 99th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. and Capt. C. J. Cotes, promoted. Second Lieut. the Hon. William Brownlow, from the 36th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. the Hon. A. J. F. Egerton, resigned. Gent. Cadet the Hon. Henry Frederick White to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. Sir H. B. Bacon, Bart, resigned.

Coldstream Guards—Lieut. the Hon. Hugh Randolph A. Gough resigns his commission.

Scots Guards—Sub Lieut. F. W. R. Ricketts resigns his commission

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1st Foot—Lieut. Herbert Vallance Burn, from the Fife Artillery Militia, to be second lieut., vice A. H. M. Tindal, transferred to the 69th Foot. Lieut. R. T. Knowles, from the Essex Rifles Militia, to be second lieut, vice the Hon. H. J. Anson, transferred to the 71st Foot.

2nd Foot—Lieut. Mitford Cust to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. E. A. Hughes, promoted; July 2, 1878.

3rd Foot—Captain Herbert J. Mainwaring Williams, from the 41st Foot, to be capt., vice A. H. Lefroy, who exchanges.

4th Foot—Sub Lieut Edward Rawdon Penrose to be lieut.; Feb. 12, 1876. Sub Lieut. Frank Broadwood Matthews to be lieut.; July 15, 1876.

6th Foot—Capt. James Edgar Baines, from the 45th Foot, to be capt., vice A. Morton, who exchanges.

7th Foot—Lieut. J. R. Beckett to be capt., vice A. J. Harrison, retired on a pension; Aug. 21, 1878. Second Lieut. G. Winter Zwilchenbart Moss, from the 106th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. A. H. Daunt, a Probationer for the Indian Staff Corps.

10th Foot—Lieut. Nicholas P. O'Gorman to be capt., vice F. Robertson, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Aug. 21, 1878. Lieut. G. Hamilton Singer to be capt., vice F. N. I. Taylor, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Aug. 21, 1878.

11th Foot—Lieut. the Hon. W. Yarde-Buller, from the South Devon Militia, to be seeond lieut, vice E. A. Williamson, transferred to the 29th Foot.

13th Foot—Lieut. R. Wm. G. Hillas, from the Fermanagh Militia, to be second lieut.. in succession to Lieut. F. W. Spencer-Stanhope, promoted.

14th Foot—Major W. Young, from the 49th Foot, to be major, vice Brevet Lieut.-Col. R. H. Vivian, who exchanges. Sub Lieut. Frederick Walter Kitchener to be lieut; Sept. 11, 1876.

16th Foot—Lieut. C. G. W. Edwardes Edwardes has been appointed a probationer of the Indian Staff Corps. Lieut. C. E. Stuckey Lean, from 1st Somerset Militia, to be second lieut, vice W. F. Percy, transferred to the 9th Foot.

17th Foot—Sub Lieut. G. F. Shaw to be lieut.; Feb. 12, 1877. Sub-Lieut. Edward Hodding Peacock to be lieut; Feb. 26, 1877.

18th Foot—Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Colonel E. Langford Dillon, having served five years as a Regimental Lieut.-Col., is placed on half pay. Capt. Thomas Boyle Meredith retires on a pension. Lieut. Chas. Mordaunt Stephens, from the Hampshire Militia, to be second lieut, in succession to Lieut. W. E. K. Fox, a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps.

19th Foot—Lieut. Harry Julian Charrington to be capt., vice W. R. Thornhill, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Aug. 21, 1878. Lieut. E. Archibald Bruce resigns his appointment as Adjt. Lieut. L. H. Mocatta Levin to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. G. E. Lanford, promoted; July 13, 1878.

20th Foot—The restoration to full pay, dated June 29, 1876, of Capt. Edward Court Haynes, from half pay, late 93rd Foot, is cancelled.

23rd Foot—Lieut. the Hon. R. H. Bertie to be adjt., vice Lieut. R. H. Palk, deceased.

24th Foot—Lieut. A. B. Phipps, from the 3rd West York Militia, to be second lieut., vice M. T. Thomson, trnsferred to the 85th Foot. Lieut. Charles E. Curll from the Leicestershire Militia, to be second lieut., vice F. Graham, transferred to the 12th Foot.

25th Foot—Lieut. George Fred. Cley-East, from the Royal Berks Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. H. H. S. D. Hogarth, promoted.

26th Foot—Sub Lieut. Ernest Cooke to be lieut.: July 15, 1876. Sub Lieut. E. D. Kennedy to be

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lieut.: July 15, 1878. Lieut. H. E. Railston to be adjt., vice Lieut. C. T. Barrow, who resigns that appointment.

27th Foot—Capt. W. Pott retires on a pension.

29th Foot—Sub Lieut. A. James Erskine to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1877.

30th Foot—Lieut. Alexander J. Goldie, to be capt., vice H. H. Eden, retired on a pension; Aug. 21, 1878. Lieut. H. M. Browne, from the Kilkenny Militia, to be second lieut, in succession to Lieut. R. A. Scott, transferred to the 18th Hussars.

34th Foot—Sub Lieut. George Frederick Willes to be lieut; June 24, 1877.

38th Foot—Major William De Wilton Roche Thackwell to be lieut.-col., vice W. K. Elles, placed on half pay, on appontment to the Staff; July 22, 1878. Capt Sir Norman W. D. Pringle, Bart., to be major, vice W. de W. R. Thackwell; July 22, 1878. Lieut. John Bulkeley Price to be capt., vice Sir N. W. D. Pringle, Bart.; July 22, 1878. Lieut. Arthur Heywood Brooksbank, from the Yorkshire Artillery Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. B, Price.

39th Foot—Lieut. Charles H. Williams, from the Nottingham Militia, to be second lieut., vice H. H. F. Fagan, transferred to the 67th Foot.

41st Foot—Capt. Augustine H. Lefroy, from the 3rd Foot, to be capt., vice H. J. M. Williams, who exchanges.

42nd Foot—Capt. Redmond B. C. Daubeny retires from the service, receiving the value of his commission.

43rd Foot—Lieut. Ramsay Geo. Henry Couper, from the 3rd Middlesex Militia, to be secend lieut., in succession to Lieut. T. P. Geoghegan, a Probationer for the Indian Staff Corps.

45th Foot—Capt. Arthur Moreton, from the 6th Foot, to be capt, vice J. E. Baines, who exchanges.

49th Foot—Major and Brevet Lieut.-Col. R. Hussey Vivian, from the 14th Foot, to be major, vice W. Young, who exchanges.

53rd Foot—Lieut. Spencer F. George Cavendish. from the 2nd Derby Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. B. McClintock, promoted.

54th Foot—Major Francis G. S. Parker retires on half pay.

59th Foot—Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Col. Joseph de Montmorency, having served five years as a Regimental Lieut.-Col, is placed on half pay.

60th Foot—Brevet Col. H. Geo. Deedes, from Super. Major, to be lieut.-col., vice H. P. Montgomery, placed on half pay: Aug. 21, 1878. The restoration to the Establishment of Super. Capt. William J. Evered Poole, dated June 29, 1878, is cancelled. Super. Capt. W. J. Evered Poole to be capt., vice Brevet Major R. H Buller, C.B., seconded for special service at the Cape of Good Hope: April 30, 1878. Super. Capt. Aubrey Vere O'Brien to be capt., vice Brevet Major W. G. Byron, promoted; June 29, 1878. Lieut. Thomas S. Clarke to be capt., vice A. A. A. Kinloch, seconded for service on the staff; July 5, 1878. Super. Lieut. Horatio Reginald Mends, who has ceased to de a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps, to be lieut, vice T. S. Clarke: July 17, 1878. Sub Lieut. H. Cornwall Legh to be lieut.; Oct. 6, 1877. Lieut. Geo. Conyers Baker Baker, from the Northumberland Militia, to be secopd lieut., in succession to Lieut. H. E. W. Fetherstonhaugh, retired.

62nd Foot—Lieut. G. F. Mockler, from the South Devon Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. H. M. Carter, promoted.

64th Foot—Lieut. Charles Herbert de Kertzleben Walhouse, from the 3rd Stafford Militia, to be second lieut., vice F. M. H. Marshall, transferred to the 80th Foot. Lieut. David E. D. Barclay, from the 5th Middlesex Militia, to be second lieut., vice J. C. W. D. Nicol, transferred to the 48th Foot.

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69th Foot—Sub Lieut. Wm. V.

Dickinson to be lieut.: Feb. 12, 1876.

70th Foot—Lieut. R. Damer Wynyard, from the East Kent Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. A. W. Munsey, retired. Lieut. Arthur Kerl Huddart, from the Royal Carnarvon Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. F. F. F. Roupell, promoted.

74th Foot—Lieut. Charles John Cathcart Douglas, from the Renfrew Militia, to be second lieut., vice M. U. Weyland, transferred to the Rifle Brigade.

77th Foot—Lieut. Nathaniel W. Bardiston, from the West Suffolk Militia, to be second lieut., vice A. C. Campbell, transferred to the Rifle Brigade.

79th Foot—Lieut. Orr Boswell Gordon to be adjt., vice Lieut. A. N. Forbes-Gordon, promoted: July 13, 1878.

83rd Foot—Lieut. George R. C. Westropp, from the South Cork Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. C. T. Davenport, promoted.

84th Foot—Lieut John Lepperd retires on a pension.

85th Foot—Lieut. Claude G. H. Sitwell, from the Huntingdon Militia, to be second lieut, in succession to Lieut W. Welman, promoted. Lieut. James Spens to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. E. H. Ives, promoted; July 12, 1878.

90th Foot—Sergeant Instructor of Musketry John Ross to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. A. H. Saltmarshe, killed in action.

94th Foot—Lieut. A. H. Tylden-Patterson, from the 1st Derby Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. S. N. M. Nairne, promoted.

95th Foot—Sub Lieut. F. E. V. Taylor to be lieut.; May 17, 1878. Lieut. Robert Gifford, from the Worcester Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. A. M. Bowles, promoted.

96th Foot—Lieut. W. Bertram, from the 2nd Royal Lanark Militia to be second lieut., vice H. C. F. Luttrell, transferred to the Rifle Brigade.

98th Foot—Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Col. T. Francis Lloyd, having served five years as a Regimental Lieut.-Col., is placed on half pay. Capt and Brevet Major C. Henry Griffin retires on a pension. Lieut. D. Downes McCausland to be captain, vice E E. McBride, retired; Aug. 21, 1878.

106th Foot—Lieut. T. Roger, Johnson-Smyth, from the Antrim Militia, to be second lieut, in succession to Lieut. W. A. Berwick, promoted half pay captain.

Rifle Brigade—Lieut.-Col. A. H. Stephens is placed on half pay on appointment to the Staff; Sept. 1, 1878. Lieut. J. Wilmot Lambert resigns his commission. Lieut. H. Cecil Cholmondeley to be adjt., vice Lieut. J. J. Preston, promoted; May 1, 1878.

1st West India Regiment—Sub Lieut Henry Wrightman Benson to be lieut.; July 15, 1876.

Staff.

To be Paymasters for Army Services:—Paymaster and Hon. Major John O'Connor, from the 6th Foot. Paymaster and Hon. Capt. C. Myers Dawes, from the 30th Foot.

Army Pay Department.

The undermentioned officers have resigned their commissions as Combattant Officers, to be paymasters, with the hon. rank of Capt. in the Army; April 1, 1878, such antedate not to carry pay prior to Sept. 14, 1878.:—Capt. E. C. Haynes. from half pay, late 93rd Foot. Capt. W. Bell, from the 56th Foot. Capt. George J. Charles Whittington, from the 23rd Foot. Capt. Octavius Wm. Hill, from the 58th Foot. Capt. Richard Oliffe Richmond, from the 89th Foot. Capt. F. W. Vance Packman, from the 21st Foot. Capt. W. Barton Wade, from the 26th Foot. Capt. Charles Stuart Percival Willoughby, from the 97th Foot. Capt. Robert McIntosh Nott, from the 103rd Foot.

Medical Department.

Surg.-Major Hampden Healy Maclean retires upon half pay.

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Surg. Wm. G. Martelli is placed upon temporary half pay; Aug. 29, 1878.

To be surgeons under the Royal Warrant of May 1, 1878; Aug. 4, 1878.:—Arthur Jermyn Landon, gent., John Stevenson, M.B., W. Lemon Lane, M.B., W. Parsons Feltham, gent, John Lichenstein Ritchie, gent., William Leah, P. Joseph Dempsey, M.D., Kenneth Serjeant Wallis, gent., John W. H. Flannagan, gent., Owen Ed. Pennefather Loyd, gent., James Gaussen MacNeece, gent., M. D. O'Connell, gent., Hartley Innes Noad, gent., A. Stewart Ward Young, gent., Arthur Harding, gent., John Joseph Falvey, gent., John Frederick Dowman, gent., Horatio R. Odo Cross, gent., C. Seymour, M.B.

Brevet.

Capt. and Brevet Major C. H. Griffin, 89th Foot, to have the hon. rank of Lieut.-Col., upon retiring on a pension.

Capt. A. W. Douglas Smith, Royal Marine Light Infantry, to have the hon. rank of Major, on appointment as Barrack-master; July 2, 1878.

Capt. W. Pott, 27th Foot, to have the hon. rank of Major, upon retiring on a pension.

Capt. Thomas Boyle Meredith, 18th Foot, to have the hon. rank of Major, upon retiring on a pension.

Lieut. John Lepperd, 84th Foot, to have the hon. rank of Captain, upon retiring on a pension.

Lieut.-Cols. to be Colonels:—R. D'Oyly Compton Bricken, Bengal Staff Corps: April 26, 1878. Richard Sanderson Simonds, Bengal Staff Corps: June 11, 1878. Thomas Edward Webster, Bengal Staff Corps; June 11, 1878. W. Scott Drever, C.S.I., Madras Staff Corps; June 11, 1878. John M. Graham, Bengal Staff Corps: June 11, 1878. John Brenton Cox, Bengal Staff Corps: June 11, 1878. Alfred George Plomer, Bombay Staff Corps: June 11, 1878. R. R. Wallace, Bombay Staff Corps: June 11, 1878. James Clements, Bombay Staff Corps: June 11, 1878. Ernest A. Green, Bombay Staff Corps: June 11, 1878. Octavius Ludlow Smith, Bengal Staff Corps: June 12, 1878. John Durham Hall, Bombay Staff Corps: June 12, 1878. T. Waddington, Bombay Staff Corps: June 12, 1878. Thomas Francis Lloyd, 98th Foot: Aug. 9, 1878. Joseph Montmorency, 59th Foot: Aug. 16, 1878. E. Langford Dillon, 18th Foot; Aug. 27, 1878.

The following promotions to take place in succession to Gen. C. Cotton, Col. of the 101st Foot, placed on the Retired List on 10th Aug, 1878. under the provisions of Article 138 of the Royal Warrant of May 1, 1878:—Lieut.-Gen. C. A. Edwards, C.B., Colonel of the 18th Foot, to be General: Aug. 1878. Major-Gen. Sir John Josiah Hort, Bart., C.B., to be lieut.-gen: Aug. 10, 1878.

The following promotion to take place consequent on the death, on Aug. 22, 1878, of Major-Gen. T. G. Alexander Oakes, C.B.:—Brev. Col. C. Baring, from Lieut.-Col., half pay, late Coldstream Guards, to be major-gen.: Aug. 23, 1878.

Memoranda.

The local rank of Major granted to Capt. G. R. Walker, Royal Engineers, whilst serving as a professor at the Royal Canadian College, Canada, as notified in the Gazette of Aug. 23, 1878, is antedated to July 14, 1878.

The following officers have been permitted to commute their retired allowances:—Major and Hon. Lieut.-Col. Harry Robert Milligan, late 60th Foot; Aug. 7, 1878. Vet. Surg. of the First Class Hicks Withers, half pay, late 10th Hussars, July 29, 1878.

The undermentioned officers retire from the Service by the surrender of their half pay:—Major Francis George S. Parker, half pay late 54th Foot. Major Francis Fawkes, half pay, 71st Foot: Aug. 15, 1878.

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War Office, Sept. 13.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Sept. 14, 1878:—

2nd Ayrshire Artillery—Sub-Lieut. A. McCubbin to be lieut: June 2, 1875.

1st Administrative Brigade Northumberland Artillery—George J. Place, gent., to be quartermaster.

1st Surrey Artillery—The surname of the Veterinary Surg. in the above corps is Elmer, not Elmore. as previously stated.

4th East Riding of Berkshire Artillery—Capt. John C. Serres resigns his commission.

8th Aberdeenshire Rifles—Capt. James Coutts resigns his commission, also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the corps on his retirement. Lieut. James Shewan resigns his commission. William Smith Laurie, gent., to be second lieut.

10th Aberdeenshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. John Maitland to be lieut.; Sept. 24, 1873. Sub Lieut. Geo. Alexander Webster to be lieut.: June 30, 1875.

1st Banffshire Rifles—Sub Lieutenant George Shearer resigns his commission.

1st Buckinghamshire Rifles—Capt. Philip Charles Yorke, 4th Foot, to be adjt., vice Clement, retired on half pay: Aug. 30, 1878.

19th Cornwall Rifles—Reginald Phillips Baker, gent., late Lieut. Royal Marine Light Infantry, to be lieut.

7th Dorsetshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. William Henry Williams to be lieut.: Oct. 4, 1876.

10th Dorsetshire Rifles—Second Lieut. William Watts to be lieut.

1st Dumbartonshire Rifles—A. Houston, jun., gent., to be second lieut. Gordon Carnachan, gent., to be acting surg.

10th Dumbartonshire Rifles—The Rev. James Caven to be acting chap.

3rd Edinburgh Rifles—Second Lieut. A. McDonald resigns his commission. Peter McKerchar, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Elginshire Rifles—James D. Miller, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

6th Essex Rifles—Capt. S. Wilkinson Crookes resigns his commission.

6th Flintshire Rifles—The Rev. John Rowlands to be acting chap.

3rd Hampshire Rifles—The Christian name of Lieut. Inman is Edwin, not Edward as previously stated.

11th Hampshire Rifles—Acting Surg. William Henry Johnston resigns his commission.

1st Kent Rifles—Sub Lieut. F. Pine, jun., to be lieut.

1st Lancashire Rifles—Second Lieut. John Lecomber resigns his commission.

15th Lancashire Rifles—Second Lieut. William Lewis Roberts to be lieut.

56th Lancashire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Joseph Samuel Hughes to be lieut.: May 16, 1877. Sub Lieut. Samuel George Isherwood to be lieut.: May 16, 1877.

6th Leicestershire Rifles—Lieut. William W. Goode to be capt.

21st Middlesex Rifles—Edmund Ernest Nott Bower, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

39th Middlesex Rifles—Capt. J. Woulfe Keogh, 64th Foot, to be adjt., vice Crawley, placed on retired pay: Aug. 26, 1878.

1st Nottinghamshire Rifles—Lieut. Richard Hardy resigns his commission. Lieut. Edward Rawlings resigns his commission.

33rd Staffordshire Rifles—Hon. Chap. the Rev. John Pauli resigns his commission.

34th Staffordshire Rifles—Lieut. Edward Naylor to be capt.

6th North Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Richard Ashby, gent., to be second lieut.

18th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—The Rev. James J. Christie to be acting chap.

29th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub Lieut Thomas Robert Maddison to be lieut.

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ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Sept. 17.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Sept. 18, 1878:—

The undermentioned Sub Lieutenants to be lieuts.:—

4th Hussars—Edwin William Exham: Feb. 12, 1876.

9th Lancers—C. J. Bernard H. Dressner; Sept. 11, 1876.

10th Hussars—Edward Temple Rose: June 13, 1874.

13th Hussars—Robert S Smyth Baden-Powell; Sept 11, 1876. F. Stephens Dimond; Sept. 11, 1876.

15th Hussars—G. Fitz Austin Gavin; Sept. 10, 1875. Percy C. Reid: Sept. 10, 1875.

Royal Artillery—Lieut. A. W. Anstruther to be captain, vice P. Harrison, placed upon the Seconded List; Aug. 24, 1878. Capt. Thomas Walker Bridges (late Bengal), from the Supernumerary List, to be capt., vice T. A. Davis (late Bengal), placed upon the Seconded List; Aug. 29, 1878. Lieut. Lionel Tillotson to be capt., vice J. S. Bridges, who retires upon a gratuity. Lieut. J. Bent to be lieut. upon the Seconded List: Aug. 10, 1878. Lieutenant J. P. Williams-Freeman resigns his commission.

Coast Brigade—Capt. J. Richie, from the Seconded List, to be capt.: Aug. 1, 1878.

Grenadier Guards—The surname of the Second Lieut. transferred from the 99th Foot is Goulburn, and not as stated in the Gazette of 13th inst.

The undermentioned Sub Lieutenants to be lieuts.:—

1st Foot—Hamilton W. Broadley: March 8, 1876, but his commission as Lieut. in the Army to bear date Feb. 12, 1876.

3rd Foot—Hugh Roddam Tate: Sept. 10, 1875. Ernest de Brath: Sept. 11, 1876. Arthur Horsman Coles: Sept. 11, 1876. Henry H. Forbes: Sept. 11, 1877.

5th Foot—A. Lionel Pennington; Sept. 11, 1876. Joseph G. Ogle: Sept. 11, 1876.

6th Foot—Ed. Maurice Eyre: Sept. 10, 1875.

8th Foot—H. J. R. St. George Richardson; Sept. 10, 1875.

9th Foot—Ralph H. F. Lombe; Sept. 11, 1876.

12th Foot—R. C. Onslow; Sept. 11 1876 R. Bellew Adams; Sept. 11, 1876. A. J. Ross Hutchinson: Sept. 11, 1876. J. M. Carpendale: Sept. 11, 1877.

14th Foot—John Walter Thruston: Sept. 10, 1875. John Henry Howland Ansley: Feb. 12, 1876.

17th Foot—M. R. Hyslop: Nov. 11, 1876, but his commission as Lieut. in the Army bears date September 11, 1876.

18th Foot—Philip Barber Lindsell: Sept. 11, 1876.

22nd Foot—A. G. H. Gardner; July 26, 1876.

25th Foot—John Mark A. Retallick; Sept. 10, 1875. F. M. Turner; Sept. 11, 1877.

34th Foot—E. W. Fane Martin: Sept. 10, 1875. George H. A. Arnot; Sept. 11, 1876.

39th Foot—Horace J. J. Kentish; Sept. 10, 1875. Frank C. Dunlop; Sept. 11, 1876.

44th Foot—W. G. Carter; Sept. 10, 1875.

59th Foot—C. F. H. Medhurst: Feb 12, 1876.

62nd Foot—Sydney C. Faulder: Sept. 10, 1875. Charles E. Lane Clarke: Sept. 10, 1875.

63rd Foot—William Tenison: Sept. 10, 1875. A. G. Bushby Stubbs; Sept. 10, 1875. James Henry Parsons: Sept. 11, 1876. William B. Graham; Sept. 11, 1876.

65th Foot—Charles Wilbraham Ford; Sept 10, 1875. Francis E. Wallerstein; Sept. 11, 1876.

70th Foot—H. Ringwood: September 11, 1876. F. G. Delamain: Nov. 24, 1877, but his commission as Lieut. in the Army to bear date Feb. 12, 1876.

73rd Foot—John Henry Collier Coode; Sept. 10, 1875. Charles Walter Harris; Sept. 10, 1876.

85th Foot—W. Baume Capper: Feb. 12, 1876. Ernest H. Rivett-Carnac: Feb. 12, 1876. Charles James Robert Stirling; Sept. 11, 1876. Philip Bulman; Sept. 11, 1876.

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92nd Foot—E. Cecil Bethune; Sept. 10, 1875.

Rifle Brigade—G. S. Phipps Hornby; Sept. 10, 1875.

India Office, Sept. 16, 1878.

Her Majesty has been pleased to approve of the resignation of the service of the undermentioned officer:—

Lieut.-Col. G. Vincent Fosbery, V.C.: Aug. 25, 1878.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Sept. 30.

Where not otherwise specified the following commissions bear date Sept. 21, 1878.

Infantry.

1st Derby—Capt. W. T. E. Cox resigns his commission.

Royal South Gloucester—The undermentioned gentlemen to be Second Lieuts.: F. H. Lucy. C. H. Newman Ringer.

Hereford—Lieut. Geoffrey C. T. Wykeham Fiennes, from the Oxford Militia, to be lieut., Sept. 6, 1878.

East Kent—Ernest Albert Bennet, gent,, to be second lieut.

Royal East Middlesex—Capt. T. Burslem Wright resigns his commission; also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement. Lieut. C. P. Boyd to be capt.; July 22, 1878. William John McWhinnie, gent., to be second lieut.: July 22, 1878.

Northumberland—Dixon Loftus Brown, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd Somerset—Sub Lieut Geo. Pleydell-Bouverie to be lieut.: Nov. 22, 1876.

Royal South Wales Borderers—Lieut. Gerald J. FitzGerald to be capt.; June 21, 1878.

3rd Royal Surrey—Burrell C. Fuller, gent., to be second lieut.

The Highland Light Infantry—The undermentioned Lieuts. to be capts.:—Charles James Merry. Horace William Kemble.

1st Royal Lanark—George W. Worrall, gent., to be second lieut.

Scottish Borderers—Captain B. T. Gaskin Anderson to be major, vice W. G. F. Johnston, deceased. Lieut. R. Francis Dudgeon to be capt.

Carlow—Capt. Pierce O'Brien Butler is granted the honorary rank of Major.

Donegal—Sub Lieut. D. Wm. Cornway to be lieut.: March 14, 1877. Sub Lieut. J. W. Davidson to be lieut.: May 31, 1877.

Kerry—H. Reginald Ryder, gent., to be second lieut.

Kilkenny—Sub Lieut. W. Candler Neville to be lieut.: Jan. 20, 1877.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Ayrshire—Capt. James F. Stuart Menteth, 2nd Dragoon Guards, to be adjt., in succession to Capt. and Brevet Major J. L. Stewart, 18th Hussars, whose period of service in that appointment has expired: Sept. 4, 1878.

Buckinghamshire—Sub Lieut. T. Warren resigns his commission.

Oxfordshire—Capt. John Baskerville to be major.

West Somerset—Captain Vincent Stuckey resigns his commission; also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement.

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TRAVELS IN PERSIA.

By Commander G. Nelson Pomeroy Mason, late I.N.

(Edited by C. R. Low, I.N., F.R.G.S.)

CHAPTER II.

Shiraz to Persepolis.

Travelling in an unostentatious manner, our little company were little likely to arrest the notice of the great, and few travellers could have met with so little annoyance as I experienced during the whole of my sojourn in Persia. Arriving at Shiraz about the middle of April, 1859, I had the good fortune to see the valley and numerous gardens in the vicinity of the city under their most delightful aspect, while the beautiful climate enabled me to explore and sketch the whole day without much inconvenience. A drenching shower, however, would now and then break over the valley, accompanied, perhaps, by lightning and a few heavy claps of thunder. My lodging was not far from the gate of the Bagh-i-Shah (or the King's Garden). When I awoke the morning after my arrival in Shiraz, to the entire novelty of surrounding circumstances were added a freedom and liberty few can claim as their own in these days in civilized countries. If the questionable advantages of receiving attention and presents from the upper ten of Shiraz and elsewhere were missing, I had the restful assurance of not being compelled to pay visits of ceremony to anyone in authority. The society of Persian governors, whose hands, morally speaking, are never over clean, is neither very edifying or pleasant to an Englishman, who has been taught that to deal frankly with everyone, and to speak the truth at all times, are fixed principles from which he can never waver one hair's breadth. I must, however, speak a friendly word here of Kholler Mirza, Governor of Ispahan, and the Commander-in-Chief of the Shah's Army, defeated by us at Mahomerah. It might have been expected that he would be ill-inclined to speak unreservedly or even civilly to an English naval officer of subordinate rank, especially as his nephew Nasr-ood-deen Shah was known to have mulct him some 40,000 *tomauns* or more, by way of punishment for running away from our 8-inch guns, at the bombardment of that strong earthwork, but nevertheless I was always kindly and courteously received by him in private audience in his pleasant little "khelivat.* As the morning sun touches the tops of the mountains surrounding Shiraz with golden light, will my reader, having discussed with me our morning cup of tea and dry cake, accompany me to the house-top, a feat accomplished by the flight of steps close to the outer-room door, rather a break-neck affair of some eighteen or

* Khelivat means private room (a private audience.)

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twenty steps. When on the top, we find a parapet partially preventing us from seeing the female occupants of the several courts around, who are busy with the several household duties of this early hour. Some parts of the brown and barren hills before us are more or less broken, and fall into picturesque nooks and chasms, which in early morning and late in the afternoon, are often arrayed in depths of shadow of varied greys, almost amounting to purple in tone, affording much worthy of an artist's study. To me, these purple slopes and grey shadows of the mountains are the chief features of interest in the ever-recurring and monotonous mountain chains of Iran. The Shiraz Valley is very extensive in length, and about ten miles in breadth, of which the city occupies three miles, standing about one and a half miles from the hills through which the Ispahan road passes by a defile called Tung Alli Ackbar. In the extreme western end, and leading out into smaller spaces between the hills, well watered and cultivated, we have, about three miles from the city, a forest of fruit-trees, just now arrayed in luxuriant blossom, called the Masjidi Burdee. These Gardens, with the dark-green and ever-recurring cypress, with the bordering of great beds of roses and other flowers—are of great extent, and at this time (middle of April), are a delightful part of the environs. In autumn, the supply of fruit, peaches, apples, grapes, oranges, pomegranates, &c., is enormous from these grounds, and were we to enumerate the sights of Shiraz, this would form one of the chief, exclusive of the tombs of poets and saints, and the few once beautiful but now ill-repaired and half-ruined palaces, which are the chief features of interest. The eye wanders round to the right until it rets on other spots of verdure, which are the gardens surrounding the several palaces lying on the slopes of the hills. The principal of these is the Takht-i-Kajir, constructed by Futteh-Ali-Khan,* when Governor of Shiraz, whose long reign as Shah of Persia was signalized by the first inroad of Russia on Persian territory, and for the costly British Missions of Sir John Malcolm. Farther on, to the right, we have the barren hills again, relieved by the trees and shrubs and imarets (or summer-houses) of the Bagh-i-Now, and Jehan Nema, of older date than the Takht-i-Kajir. Here, notwithstanding much that is barren and dreary, there is a pleasing break in the hills, and the attention is fascinated as we make out the gloomy cypress trees, and small enclosures amidst rough and stony ground, which surround a site of world-wide interest—the Hafiziya, or Tomb of Hafiz, the great lyric bard of Persia. Farther on again, a mile or two to the right, we have the village of Saadiya and the Sepulchre of Saadi, a worthy and earlier compeer to "The Anacreon of Shiraz," but of this, from our point of view, we can see little or

* Futteh-Ali-Khan was nephew of Agha Mahomed Khan, founder of the Kajir dynasty, and who during his uncle's life time held the post of Governor of the province of Fars.

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nothing. In turning, to complete the circuit of the valley, to east and south, all is as barren and uninteresting as need be, so we will descend, and after "nahar," or breakfast, proceed to inspect the Tomb of Mohamed Shems-ud-Deen Hafiz,* whose name is familiar to every educated Englishman. Hafiz was born at Shiraz in the beginning of the fourteenth century, and died in 1385. His most celebrated productions are his odes, about 600 in number, in which roses, nightingales, wine, love and intoxication figure pretty freely, though most Persians consider that a metaphysical and spiritual meaning was hidden under these wild strains. Leaving the Ispahan gate for the slopes of the hills on the north side of the valley, a short walk of half-a-mile, over a paved but rough road, brought my attendant and myself to the only door of the cemetery, about two acres in extent, styled the Hafiziya. The whole is enclosed by walls about twelve feet high, and is divided by a summer-house of the usual picturesque style, which was introduced in the time of Shah Abbas, in the palaces of Chehel Setoon (or Forty Pillars), and other similar edifices in Ispahan. Once prettily decorated with carved woodwork and ornamental painting, all this is now sadly faded, and the pretty fret-work of the roof and ceiling, and the "ooroses," or stained-glass window, and lattice-work on each side of the "talar," or open hall in the centre, are much broken. Seating myself in the upper half of the enclosure reserved for tombs alone, and a few yards north of the sepulchre of Hafiz, in the centre of the cemetery, I was at perfect liberty to sketch all without interruption of any kind. The features of the scene were the tomb and hall, with the beautiful cypress trees, so often noticed by travellers, at the back, while through the open space in the hall, the trees of the lower half of the garden are discovered just coming into leaf; beyond the inner side of the garden,† the walls are adorned with false arches, here called "tauk nema," and in the extreme distance a glimpse may be had of the purple-toned barren hills of the south side of the Valley of Shiraz. Altogether this made a most interesting scene, and one could not remain unmoved amongt these silent reminders of the past history of Shiraz, when the city might rightly have claimed the title of "dar-ul-ilm," or abode of science, which it still retains without a semblance of reason, though it is said to possess ten colleges even in the present day. A small stone-tank lays between the large slab of Yezd marble over the tomb, and the stone platform and steps on which the summer-house stands, and along this platform the graceful form of a gazelle was seen gambolling; my servant was smoking his calleoon under a "chenar," or plane-tree, just budding, and with these companions, I had two quiet hours of meditation in the

* Shems-ud-Deen signifies "Son of the Faith," and Hafiz, "One who knows the Koran." Both these are appellations of honour.

† For gardens, groves would be a more appropriate name as they consist of shrubberies of orange and cypress of great extent and beauty.

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beautiful April noon, when as yet Philomel has not charmed the rose-gardens with her sweet note, for the nights are cold, and in the day furious storms of rain, hail, and wind occasionally sweep the valley. There is a fine copy here of Hafiz's poems, in charge of the custodian of the premises, which most Persians on urgent occasions consult by taking an omen.* This copy was transcribed and placed here in Kereem Khan's time. Mr. Binning,† of the Madras Civil Service, who visited Shiraz in the autumn of 1850, says that "the grave of Hafiz is covered with a large slab of marble, on the surface of which are sculptured two of the poet's odes. This marble is of a yellowish colour, streaked with veins of red, white and green, and closely resembles Egyptian alabaster. It is brought from a quarry near Yezd. The slab was placed here about ninety years ago by Kereem Khan, then Sovereign of Persia, who made Shiraz his capital, who with very doubtful propriety, removed the old monument which had stood since the poet's interment. The slab is more than nine feet long, about four feet broad, and a foot and a half thick. The odes are beautifully carved in low relief upon its level surface, one occupying the centre of the stone, and the other inscribed round the margin of the first." It follows that, if this is correct, the old monument was seen by Fryer,‡ when he found the year 1381 cut on it as the date of Hafiz's death.

* Mr. Herman Bicknell in his translation of Selections from the Poems of Hafiz, says on this subject:—"One method, after breathing over the volume, is to utter an invocation such as the following, "O Hafiz of Shiraz, impart foreknowledge to my anxious heart!' The book is then opened at hazard, and the first couplet which meets the eye is taken as answer to the question of him who consults the oracle. When Nádir Shah was engaged in hostile operations against the Afghans it is related that he performed a ziyarat, or pious visit, to the tomb of the poet, and had recourse to the Divan to know whether it would be expedient to continue the war. The couplet lighted on was the following:—

'O Hafiz, by thy dulcet song, Irák and Fárs are raptured;
Now haste that Baghdad and Tabriz may in their turn be captured!"

Such an omen was, of course, hailed as auspicious. Baghdad and Tabriz were accordingly attacked and rescued from the Turks. On account of the supposed heterodoxy of certain passages in the Divan, difficulties were raised as to the interment of Hafiz with the rites of religion. The poetic oracle, however, being consulted, all doubts were set at rest by the following couplet:—

'Wish not to turn thy foot away from Hafiz on his bier;
He shall ascend to Paradise, though steeped in sin while here.'"

† Mr. Binning has written an exhaustive and excellent description not only of these tombs and palaces, but of the domestic and religious life of Persians in general, and it is a matter of surprise that this work is not more consulted by travellers on Persia. Mr. Binning, however, only took the regular caravan road from Bushire to Teheran and back, and it is much to be regretted some of the little known parts of Persia were not visited by him, as his faculty of description and thorough knowledge of Persians and their language, are very manifest in his work of two volumes.

‡ The accompanying are some remarks of this quaint old traveller on the Hafiziya:—"About a quarter of a league from the city towards the west is to be seen a churchyard encompassed with walls; in the middle thereof, looking towards Mecca, stands a monument very much frequented by the Dervis and other devout people who say their prayers here, it being the sepulchre of Honzia Hafiz, for whom they have a very great veneration. The year of his decease

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But space compels me to leave this interesting place, only recommending it to future travellers as almost the only site in Shiraz worth visiting.

I made a sketch of the exterior of the Hafiziya, taken from the Bagh-i-Now Garden, near the Mosella. Behind the enclosure are the small gardens of the Haft-ten (Seven Bodies), and Chehel-ten (Forty Bodies), built by Kereem Khan. Both are resting-places of seven and forty holy personages, respectively, but are now out of order and neglected. In each of these graves are planted cypresses, kaj, or pinaster, and other trees, by which the gardens are easily made out at a considerable distance. Going up the road, towards the Tung-Alli-Acbar, by a stony path over a barren tract, the traveller has these gardens on his right hand, and a distant view of the Dilkhoosha Gardens, two miles off, at the entrance of the narrow valley of the Saadiya,* and on his left, the fine garden of

is set down upon a tomb, being in the year 1381. He purchased that great esteem among the Persians for having composed a great book of morality, and for that he was one of the best poets of his time. He has left one great poem behind him in the praise of good wine which has caused many to aver that Honzia Hafiz was no good Mussulman, in regard he has so lightly praised a thing which is so strictly forbidden by the law of Mahomet. Near to the churchyard is a fair garden where men go to see for the beauty of the cypress trees which are its chief ornaments. They are to be admired for their height and bigness, amongst which there is one that was planted by Shah Abbas the Great himself in the year 1607, and it may well deserve to have been planted by the hand of a monarch, for it was bigger than the rest that had been planted above a hundred years before."

* Sheikh Saadi is in the opinion of many Persians even a greater poet than his townsman, Hafiz, whom he preceded by two centuries. He is said to have been born in the year 1194, and that learned Persian scholar, Mr. Eastwick, says of him in his preface to the poet's "Gulistan" (Rose Garden) :—"It appears that his, Saadi's, father's name was Abdullah, and that he was descended from Ali, the son-in-law of Mahommed; but, that nevertheless, his father held no higher office than some petty situation under the Divan. From "Bostan," ii, 2, it appears that he lost his father when but a child; while from the sixth chapter of the 'Gulistan,' we learn that his mother survived to a later period. He was educated at the Nizámieh College at Baghdad, where he held an idrar, or fellowship, (Bostan, 7, 14), and was instructed in science by the learned Abu-l-farj-bin-Janzi (Gulistan, ii. 20) and in theology by Abdul Kadir Gilani, with whom he made his first pilgrimage to Mecca. This pilgrimage he repeated no less than fourteen times. Saadi was twice married."

Some few passages from the "Bostan" and other works of this eminent and truly national poet will not be inappropriate. "Once a King of Persia had a very precious stone in a ring. On a certain occasion he went out with some of his favourite courtiers to amuse himself to the Mosque near Shiraz called Mosella, and commanded that they should suspend the ring over the dome of Azad, saying, that the ring should be the property of him who could send an arrow through it. It befell that 400 archers who plied their bows in his service shot at the ring. All of them missed. But a stripling at play was shooting arrows at random, when the moving breeze carried his shaft through the circle of the ring. They bestowed the ring upon him and loaded him with gifts beyond calculation. The boy after this burned his bow and arrows. They asked him why he did so? He replied, 'That my first glory may remain unchanged.'

"The sage whose bright mind mirrors truth,
May sometimes wander wide of it.
While by mistake the simple youth,
Will with his shaft the target hit."

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Bagh-i-Now, near the Mosella, Bagh-i-takht-i-Kajir and others extending along the hills and extensive orchards of the Masjidi Burdee, two or three miles further west. On my first visit to Shiraz, I did not enter the defile, but kept along to my left at the back of the gardens, visiting the remarkable palace of the Takht-i-Kajir, and its rose plantations and garden, which commands a fine view of the city. The Governor occasionally resides here for several days, bringing his harem in the warm weather. Eventually I found a quiet and retired spot for a panoramic view of the city, from the ruined brick building, the remains of the Mosella, a favourite resort of the "Anacreon of the East" and his friends, which he has imortalized in his odes. The place is still held in regard by the Persians, and at the annual festival of Eed-i-Koorban (Festival of the Sacrifice), the camel is put to death here. About a quarter of a mile north of the Mosella, and some 400 feet up the mountains, is a projecting ledge called Baba Kohee, and just above this is a pretty shrine, commanding also a fine view of the city and plain. A few trees and a small garden and dwelling-house, where a dervish has established himself, stand on the platform below. For this spot, also, Hafiz is said to have had a great partiality.

Hafiz sings of the city of his birth:—"Hail to Shiraz and its incomparable site, O Lord, preserve it ever from decay." And he goes on to say:—"Between Jaaferabad and Mosella the zephyrs come mingled with sweet fragrance." And ends the ode thus:—"O God! waken me not from this sweet dream, for in these visions of her I enjoy true delight, &c." It does not quite appear whether the poet means Shiraz or his *inamorata* in the latter part of his apostrophe; if the former, it is just as well he is not now in the flesh, for his nasal organ would be saluted with anything but savoury fragrance, as the quarter he names is the site of slaughter-houses and muck-heaps, and as for the prayer that "Shiraz may be preserved ever from decay," the rotten and ruinous state of everything, from the citadel to the palaces, and from the mosques to the poets' shrines and saints' sanctuaries, would seem to indicate that it has not been fulfilled.

Saadi, who also spoke in fervid verse of his native city, would doubtless moderate his transports if he could witness the political and moral degradation of the city and fair territory of Shiraz, the absence of security to life and property, and the corruption of its

Whatever might have been Saadi's opinion of Christians, he speaks with reverence of our Lord. Thus in his "Badaya" he says, "It is the breath of Jesus, for in that fresh breath the dead earth is reviving." Saadi seems to have spent the later part of his life in retirement. He died on the evening of Friday in the month of Shawwal, A.H. 690, says Daulat Shah, and was buried near Shiraz. Kœmpfer, in 1686, and Colonel Franklin, in 1787, visited his tomb, and the latter mentions it as being in the same state as when Saadi was buried. In person Saadi was, as Ross conjectures, of a mean appearance, low of stature, spare and slim. In the picture which Colonel Franklin saw of him near his tomb, he is represented as wearing the *khirkah* or long blue gown of the dervish, with a staff in his hand.

venal and pleasure-seeking rulers. However applicable in his time, the following apostrophe is certainly no longer so:—

"None at this day can share on earth's rude breast,
A haven like the gate of peace and rest."*

There being more than a week at my disposal, and my enthusiasm having rather evaporated from my experience of the Hafiziya, I did not visit the Saadiya the same day; but, on the following morning, I sallied forth on my researches, with my sketching apparatus, and accompanied by a servant. The weather was very showery, with occasional downpours, succeeded by brilliant sunshine, which brought out the city and its mosques in strong relief, Shah Cheragh and the other buildings, with the bazaar and fort, being in light, whilst the hills and numerous gardens in rear were shrouded in dense masses of rain clouds, thus giving the view below an appearance of grandeur it did not really possess. Leaving the city at the north-east end, by the gate of Saadi, a ride of two miles along a tolerable road, brought us to the Saadiya and Dilkhoosha garden. Having Sir John Malcolm's flowery descriptions in remembrance, I looked rather expectantly for the garden of Saadi, and the fountain close to the tomb of the Persian moralist; but the fact is, there is no garden, and as for the fountain, it can only be the subterraneous vault and cistern of clear water full of tame fish which literally eat out of your hand. The tutelary saint's protection is, apparently, afforded to these members of the finny tribe, who are as large and fat as any I have seen in Persia, and are seldom or ever caught or harmed in any way. The dark and malignant looks of the dervishes, who hang about the Saadiya were on us, or some of these sacred muchee (fish) might have found their way into our pot, as Cyclops had little respect for Hafiz, Saadi, or any other celebrity.

A few lines will suffice for a description of the building containing the poet's tomb, which appears, outwardly, to be a very inferior and small caravanserai, or lodging for wayfarers. The building itself is on one side of a square court, consisting of three small chambers in the centre, having two other rooms above them, and flanked by two large vaulted apartments, entirely open in front to the weather.†

* Eastwick's translation of "Gulistan," or the "Rose Garden."

† Binning gives the following accurate description of the Saadiya:—"The tomb of Saadi is in the southernmost apartment, the grave being covered with a stone sarcophagus of oblong, quadrangular shape, like a chest open on top, and having four small pinnacles at the corners. It is broken through the middle, and the inscriptions with which it is covered, are much obliterated. I looked in vain for the dates of the poet's birth and decease. This monument is the original one placed over the bard's remains, but the edifice containing it was erected by Kereem Khan. The whole building is dirty and dilapidated. It is now used as a sort of caravanserai, or lodging, for dervishes, or any wanderers who may choose to take up their temporary abode here. From the central small chamber a staircase leads up to the flat terraced roof covering the whole. Sheikh Mush-ud-deen, surnamed Saadi, wn born at Shiraz about A.D. 1194, and was a man of much learning and

The place, at my visit, was full of looties and vagabonds. In one corner of the court was a band of owners of monkeys and bears, who were displaying the antics of their animals to an admiring crowd, and, in another quarter, a party of filthy dervishes were reposing, cooking, and ridding their garments of the vermin, the constant companions of Persians of almost all ranks; to use the words of Morier, "one retires from the tomb disgusted with its state, and with the people who have suffered it to become so." Those who can allow the beautiful little enclosure, with its fancy buildings, and cypress and other trees, composing the Hafiziya—the only memorial (if I except his works) of their adorable Hafiz—to go to rack and ruin, are not likely to give themselves much trouble about the resting place of a questionable Sheeah like Saadi. Dervishes affect the spot, for it suits their objectionable manners and customs, taking them out of the reach of the supervision of the darogha (head of police), and enabling them to concoct their plans of cheating, begging, or thieving, in alliance with looties or other ragamuffins, who abound in Shiraz and its neighbourhood. In brief, I was sadly disappointed with Saadi's shrine. There was nothing picturesque in it, or any imaret (building) worthy of a sketch, such as I fully expected to find. The Hafiziya was nothing very imposing; but here all surroundings were in a most disreputable, dirty, and ruinous state, which sadly reflects on the people who owe the few literary masterpieces of the language to these two great poets.

The Archæological Society is much wanted here, say under the sublime patronage of Nasir-ood-deen Shah "Zill-ullah fill Arizee!" (The Lord's Shadow on earth). Imagine a meeting in the neighbourhood of Shiraz! What ransacking of decayed old buildings and shrines; what copying of MSS. and inscriptions; what luncheons under the cypresses of Hafiz and in the gardens of the Bagh-i-Now and Jehan Nema, washed down by the famous or infamous, wine,* which bears the name of Shiraz. Again, wander-

great piety—real or pretended. He travelled as a dervish during the greater part of his life, and made the pilgrimage to Mecca no less than fourteen times; he died here at the immense age of one hundred and sixteen solar, or one hundred and twenty lunar years. Saadi is not so much respected and venerated as Hafiz. The latter was an indubitable Sheeah, while the religious principles of Saadi are doubtful; indeed from some passages of his works it may be inferred that he was probably a Sunnee. At any rate he was, by his own showing, a sufficiently bigoted Mussulman, but in his days, the Sheeah tenets had not become the established national faith of Persia, and the people were of different persuasions. Saadi is certainly a beautiful writer in his own peculiar way, though inferior to Hafiz in lyric poetry. His works are much more voluminous and diversified, embracing all kinds of composition in prose and verse. Since his time many of the literati of Persia have imitated his style and language; but none have succeeded in rivalling him. He has been termed a moralist, and, to a certain degree, may deserve the title; yet among his writings there are some abominations, in comparison with which the worst parts of Juvenal would appear modest and decent."

* Moore sings of

"Kishmee's golden wine
And the red weepings of the Shiraz vine."

But those who know the former island from some years expatriation in the Per-

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ing far afield, what picnics would not our Archæologists make in the hoary ruins of Persepolis and Pasagardæ, or to "the bower of roses by Bendemeer's stream," finishing up, on their return, with a ball and sumptuous spread in the Palace of the Takht-i-Kajir, whence could be witnessed an illumination of the great tomb of Shah Cheragh, and the more ancient, but smaller, mosque of Masjidi Now, (built by Atabek Saad Zengee, A.D. 1226) with a display of fireworks from the house-tops, got up, say, by Alli Khan Bucktiaree, or the Eel Khanee Chief, ending with "Khuda Hafiz Shuma" (God be your protector) blazed on the Durwazi Ispahan (Ispahan gate).

There exist the remains of a fine garden, watered by the cistern close to Saadi's tomb, which is in reality the source of the little stream of Aub-Zengee, called after Saadi's great patron, Atabek Saad-bin-Zengee. (*Vide* Preface to "Gulistan.") All here is now ruin and desolation. The summer-house where Sir John Malcolm received the pleasant visit of the Sheikh-ul-Islam, has little left of it, and a traveller, unless he was informed of the interest attached to this part, would pass by, probably, without noticing it.

We followed the rough road to the west, leading under the stony hills, and a ride of two miles brought us again into the neighbourhood of Hafiziya, not far from which, towards the city, are two of the principal gardens, which form the chief attractions of Shiraz—the Jehan Nema and Bagh-i-Now—the former situated on the east side of the Ispahan road, the latter on the west. These gardens are close together, being merely divided by the road, and possess some beauty and freshness. The cypress, chenar (Oriental plane) and fruit trees, with the usual imarets, are made much of by the Shirazees, who, during the afternoon, frequent in crowds these gardens, and those of the Takht-i-Kajir, further to the west. Indeed, it was one of my amusements to watch the ever varying groups of women on their asses, closely veiled, mostly in blue, and horsemen of every kind, and kafilas going out and coming in from Ispahan. All these accessories are most valuable to the artist, and without them, there is little really to interest the eye at Shiraz.

The Takht-i-Kajir carries off the palm in all these baghs. It lies on the slopes of the hills, about a mile and a half from the city, and travellers, with justice, have praised its roses and other flowers, with the fine palace, large tank of water, having little Chinese pavillions at each corner, and once boasting a boat brought over the passes from the sea, but which has now disappeared.

sian Gulf, will smile at the idea of the wine of Kishm, which exists only in the imagination of the poet, though in bygone centuries the island, which is now barren and sparsely peopled, was said to be fertile and wine bearing, and in the time of Albuquerque's first visit to Kishm early in the sixteenth century, mention is made of its opulence and great population.

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There are also terraced flower beds gradually rising to the site where the palace itself is reared, the whole forming a beautiful retreat in summer, as its elevation above the city gives it a good repute for air and water, though in winter it must be bleak enough.

The Baba Kohee was pointed out to me on the hill just above the Takht-i-Kajir, and the Jehan Nema, mentioned by Sir John Malcolm, who was, probably, located there, as there are few or any buildings in the city where a "big wig" would meet with decent lodging. The Takht-i-Kajir was probably built after the visit of this "Father of Elchees." Kalar Bindee, with its ruined tower and deep well, also demands the inspection of the traveller; I made a sketch of it, and also a general one of Shiraz, from a point above the Tung Alli Acbar, the pass leading from the city.

There are many little shrines and buildings on the north side of the hills, which compass the plain of Shiraz, but none, perhaps, more interesting than Baba Kohee, a hill rising nearly above the Takht-i-Kajir, and having a terrace cut in the rock, with a beautiful bason of clear water, and trees (cypress and others) with fruit-trees and flower-gardens. The site commands perhaps the best panoramic view of the city, and looks down on the picturesque palace and beautiful garden of Takht-i-Kajir. Some yards above the ledge, or terrace, of Baba Kohee, there is a small ruined mosque, where, so runs the legend, Hafiz used to hold a meeting for religious meditation every Friday. The place is a good distance from the walls of the city, two and a half miles at least, and as the climb to the top is considerable, few Persians appear to visit the spot, but an English traveller, distinguishing it from the house-tops in the town, would be struck by its beauty, and would scarcely fail to pay it a visit.

There remain to be noted very many remarkable buildings near the city, though all are in the same condition of dilapidation. For instance, near the corner of Bagh-i-Now stands a building which was pointed out to me as the place where, at the Eed Kourban (or the great annual festival held in commemoration of Abraham offering up Ishmael, according to the Mahomedans,) the populace come to slaughter a camel. This building is actually part of the Mosella—mentioned by Saadi, in the twenty-eighth chapter of "Gulistan"—better known as a resort of Hafiz and his companions, and often mentioned in his songs.

Shiraz looks imposing from here. The great Mosque of Shah Cheragh looms grandly over the buildings of the bazaar and gate of Ispahan, while the fruit-trees and chenars hide the repulsiveness of the ruined walls and bastions, and the varied arches of Tauk Nema form a pleasant relief to the monotony of flat roofs and rather sombre-looking mosques, of which, indeed, there are only two or three worthy of remark in all Shiraz.

A few hundred yards from the Mosella, on the left, stands

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what once has been an elegant structure, which cannot fail to strike an artistic eye, even in its ruins, for its large dome is no longer to be seen, and there is little or nothing left of the roof. This mosque, which is called Shah Mirza Hamza, stands close to the Ispahan Gate, and was built by Kereem Khan, to whose taste and liberality Shiraz owes so much. The amount of glazed tiling and brickwork, strewed in heaps round this edifice, shows what skill and labour have been bestowed on the mosque. The pavement, with water-courses now dry and out of repair, and the brick walls, having arches in relief, continue from Shah Mirza Hamza to the Gate of Ispahan. Entering this, and going through smaller bazaars, you soon reach the principal one, called the "Bazaar-i-Vakeel," built by the orders of Kereem Khan, or his mother, whose tomb I afterwards visited at the little village of Peree, near Hamadan. It is likely enough that the good Vakeel, who preferred the humble style of agent, or deputy, to the ostentatious Shah-in-Shah, really constructed the nobler buildings in Shiraz, and this bazaar, called after him, is quite equal to any I have met with elsewhere in the East, the "Bazaar-i-buland" in Ispahan, which rivalled it, being now in ruins. The Vakeel's Bazaar is still in tolerable repair, and, in the daytime, was so thronged as to be scarcely passable, but, in early morning, I often stopped to admire its elegance of style, and the vaulted arcades crossing each other, with the rotunda and cistern of water.

A long acquaintance with the odoriferous, but tortuous, alleys and lanes of Bushire, (properly "Aboo Shehr," or the "Father of Cities,") had taught me enough of the intricacies of Persian towns to thread my way. "Follow your nose" is a very good guide for a traveller in the labyrinths of dirty lanes, multitudinous bare walls, with wooden doors here and there, and abundance of ruined dwellings, with many pit-falls and hollows where he may often break his leg unless he is careful. While thus picking his way, his imagination must be often exercised in endeavouring to realise what is going on inside these blank walls and jealous barriers, though, probably, for the greater part, anything but profitable occupation or amusement, such as we define it. I am not speaking of the life of the weaker sex as it exists amongst the wandering tribes, or the inhabitants of many villages I have visited, who are free to roam unveiled, and enjoy fresh air and nature, but I am alluding to the inmates of the harem, incarcerated in cities and towns, whose mode of life and monotony of existence must tend to sour the temper. This isolated and unsociable way of living, as we understand it, has been perpetuated for centuries, and will be, seemingly, without any hope of change, so long as the Koran forms the code of morals and the groundwork of the law; rather has Persian civilization retrograded during the past three centuries, while the rest of the world has

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progressed. One of the most enlightened Persians I met with, in one of the cities, a man far above most of his countrymen in intelligence and progress, told me that his home was a miserable one, as his two wives were always at variance, and when he went there he had a wretched time of it. This man used to sit with me for hours, and fully enter into the politics of the day, and enjoy any news or information I gave him, or read to me the letters from his tenants in neighbouring villages, and, in fact, he made me his confidant. He lost his only child during my acquaintanceship, which greatly grieved him, but, as far as I could learn from him, the mother was glad to get rid of it.

Our officiating agent at Shiraz at this time was the descendant (either son or grandson) of the Jaffir Alli Khan, brother to the Nawaub of Masulipatam, mentioned by Malcolm. He went by the name of Nawaub, owned, according to his own account, much property in the direction of Masjidi Burdee and elsewhere, and his marriage with a fair Shirazi of noble birth gave him a recognised position here. I found him very civil and kind, and his introductions afforded me some little knowledge of a Persian interior. I visited him one day, and, entering by the usual door in the wall, found myself, in company with my servant, in a beautiful garden, with the ordinary paved water-way, and planted with fine trees and borders of flowers. It being early Spring the roses were not in bloom, but there were narcissus, the "Elchee Soosun,"* and other flowers. At the end of this court, and opposite the entrance doorway, was the "dewan khanee," or reception-room, raised a few feet higher than the court, and ascended by marble steps on each side. The Nawaub appeared to live in luxury, and to my rather inexperienced eyes, fresh from the mean dwellings of Bushire, his abode and *entourage* bore an aspect of Oriental magnificence. The oorosee (sort of verandah) was a very fine one, and this structure of lattice-work and stained glass of minute pieces and intricate pattern, merits a fuller description than I can give here. The Nawaub was sufficiently Western in his ideas to have European chairs, although there were sumptuous cushions and pillows on the floor; there were also Persian chairs, highly lacquered and gilt, but most inconvenient for use, especially to a stout person, which fortunately I was not, but some of his friends who were visiting or called in to see the Feringhee, were obese, and looked very uncomfortable. The carpets, from Kerman and Yezd, were magnificent, and, indeed, what with the fountain outside running water (for a wonder) the enamelled walls of alabaster, whiter than chunam, and beautifully stamped with birds and flowers in relief, and the wide-spread awnings placed before the oorosee covering the way to the garden, and tempering the sun's fervid

* *Elchee Soosun* means a "lily's ambassador," this being the first flower in spring.

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rays, together with the capital tea, lemon juice, and nargilehs, or calleoons, I spent more than an hour very pleasantly. The Nawaub was aged, though, in his case, grey hairs did not bring wisdom, for two years afterwards, on my return to Shiraz, I heard that his youngest wife, aged fifteen, whom he had just taken to himself, had recently poisoned him. This may, or may not, be altogether correct, as in Persia these reports must always be received with caution; but, at any rate, his son was in possession, and located me in the self-same court and garden, in a pretty little apartment at the side. I was then unwell and did not go about much, but paid one visit to the Dewan-Khanee, and amused myself a whole afternoon in watching the female part of the household, with many children playing about the garden and court, under the protection of their sable guards, who were civil enough. The women were eating all the afternoon, and, outwardly, seemed a favourable specimen of a Persian family; the children were amusing themselves, and their mothers ventured close to my quarters, partially laying aside their veils, but whether they were there with their lord's permission, I do not know—perhaps many of them were members of his father's harem, over whose movements he exercised little or no control.

While at Shiraz, I made the acquaintance of Dr. Fagergren,*

* Dr. Fagergren was present at the battle of Khooshaub, and said that it was astonishing to see how quickly the severe wounds of Persian soldiers healed, though some had wounds which he thought would have ended fatally. His expression to me regarding the charge of the 3rd Bombay Cavalry, and the utter discomfiture of the Shah's army was, "You English did not make good battle," (or good fight), meaning if we had followed up our victory we should have annihilated the Persians, as they fled in utter rout to the passes on the Ferozeabad road. Of his medical experiences, he said the Persian takes medicine in basins' full, as they are more solicitous for quantity than quality. He told me the story mentioned by Binning, of a noble of royal blood, resident at Shiraz, who fell very ill of fever, and after trying in vain the remedies of the Persian physicians, sent for him (the Swedish Physician) in great terror and tribulation, begging him to save his life if possible, and promising him a handsome recompense in the event of his effecting a cure. Dr. Fagergren accordingly attended him with the greatest care and assiduity through a long and dangerous illness, until he was fairly convalescent and able to take exercise. One day a servant of this nobleman conveyed to the doctor the unwelcome intelligence that his master had suddenly died in a paroxysm of fever, so here was an end of all hopes of recompense for the care and trouble he had taken. A few days afterwards, the Doctor being out at some gardens near the city, observed his quondam patient—the dead man—in renewed health and spirits, riding along with his companions. The story of his decease was nothing more than an ingenious trick of this honourable scion of royalty to cheat the physician who had saved his life out of his hard-earned fee. The incident is illustrative of Persian meanness. I sent down to my agents at Bombay for six dozen of beer as a present for Dr. Fagergren who was civil to me, though his terrible strong remedies of jalap and salts afterwards nearly killed me outright. He said the English at Bushire would never allow the beer to pass them, and so it proved, for as it had my name on it, and arrived in hot weather when the people were out of beer, a friend sold it on my account, and out of kindness to me, at a profit. I was of course very vexed as I had promised it to Dr. Fagergren, but there was no remedy, as the beer was drank before I got the news. Poor Fagergren used always to say, "Dear Sir, pray write about the beer. The English have great affection for de beer," and so it proved.

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a Swedish physician of some note in the Shah's service, who had resided there for many years, and whom I found a kind and well-informed companion.

Desirous of sketching Shiraz from the most picturesque points of view, I proceeded along the Ispahan road, which leaves the valley of Shiraz by a comparatively narrow defile called the Tung Alli Acbar. The break in the hills here on the north side of the valley is not very wide, and, in fact, they almost meet at the guard-house, situated at the entrance of the defile, which is built on both sides of the road, with a chamber above the gateway. The range of hills on the western side of the Tung Alli Acbar pass rises with an almost perpendicular abruptness, and to a very considerable height. Not far from, and a little above, the road is a saint's tomb, with a cypress-tree and a water-mill, turned by the Rocknabad, and, close at hand, some trumpery sculptures of Futteh-Alli-Khan smoking his calleoon, and another tablet with Rustam, the Persian Hercules, rescuing a man from the clutches of a lion. The hills on the east rise with a more gradual ascent to, perhaps, an elevation of 600 or 800 feet, having on the summit a tower, called Kalar Bindee, with a well said to be bottomless; there can be no doubt of its great depth, and also of the antiquity of both it and the tower. Attaching to the well is a legend, that unfaithful wives were precipitated into its gloomy depths, but what foundation there is for it I know not, though, usually, these traditions have their origin in fact. The tower commands Shiraz, although without artillery or any fortifications of modern date, the pass at present possesses no means of adequate resistance, though a few guns placed on the height and in the defile, would render this entrance to the valley of Shiraz almost impregnable.

There is a picturesque bird's-eye view a short distance from the rising ground near the guard-house, which cannot fail to strike the traveller who first comes in sight of it. From this point the eyesores of the city, and the deplorable condition of many of its principal gardens, are concealed, and as in most Eastern cities, the saying that "distance lends enchantment to the view" may be received as an established truth concerning Shiraz, and indeed of every town and city in Iran. The fine mosque of Shah Cheragh rising high above the flat roofs of the bazaars, ruined walls, bastions and gates of the city breaks its tame and uninteresting outline, and the principal road leading from the Ispahan gate, the Shah Mirza Hamza, and other ruined edifices, comes full in view between the Bagh-i-Now and Jehan Nema, and, as it nears the Tung Alli Acbar, widens out into a spacious throughfare, somewhat gay with horsemen, kafilahs, veiled ladies, and moolahs on their asses, either going or returning from the shrines, with, at this season, long strings of the wandering tribes, with their goods, camels and horses. The dark, almost sable, green of the

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solemn cypress trees rising from the garden by the road side, gives additional force to the drab colour of the roads and garden walls, lit up by brilliant sunshine. In the immediate foreground we have the broken outline of the defile and the adjacent hills and rugged road passing the guard-house, with the slopes leading to the heights of Kalar Bindee, dotted with the low black tents of the Nomad tribes; indeed when my sketch was taken the whole hill was covered with camels and their foals, horses and their colts, sheep, oxen, and their owners, engaged in their several duties. It would seem a matter of difficulty for them to meet with sufficient pasture for such vast herds as were collected here, though they seldom remain long, and will soon move northward in quest of fresh grazing grounds. When my sketch was completed I walked a few hundred yards further on, and came upon some three or four circular-shaped ruins of brickwork, standing not far from the road. I rather dreaded interrogating one or two Persians standing by, who, for aught I knew, had a closer interest in these erections than they cared to own, as I guessed the use to which these uncanny-looking buildings were put, but one of the number informed me that a short time previously the Governor, Ferooz Mirza, had bricked up some celebrated banditti, leaving their heads only visible, and thus they died a prolonged and miserable death. The civilized traveller revolts at such instances of barbarism, and for my part I congratulated myself on not being obliged to inquire further into these atrocities. Whilst the Shah-in-Shah, the "refuge of the world," the "protector of the poor," and all the rest of it, resorts to the most cruel and treacherous acts to support his tottering and uncertain rule, it is not likely his governors and viceroys will show a milder and more civilized temper. Persia, even more than Turkey, is the home of despotism and cruelty, and little amelioration can be displayed under the debasing influence of the so-called faith of the Impostor of Mecca. I returned home by the Bagh-i-Shah gate, on the west side of the city, not being particularly careful as to the line of route pursued, but riding over the ruined walls and streets to my lodging, after a fashion I often practised. Persian towns contrast unfavourably with those of Egypt, Turkey, and other Eastern countries, as regards coffee-houses, fountains, numerous balconies, and other architectural features, and European travellers are denied the use of the Oriental luxury known by the name of the Turkish bath. In former days, travellers in Persia could gain admittance to the hummams, but now it is only in the Armenian hummams at Julfah, in Ispahan, that a European can indulge in a bath. My experience of Iran is that the country is retrograding, and not progressing, in all those essentials which constitute national greatness. But there must soon come a change, and the most bigoted and despotic of dynasties will have to yield

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to the requirements of a reforming age. The chief factor in this near future of progress, will be the omnipotent railway train.

The time is fast approaching, or is supposed to be so, when the "iron horse" will drag after him the wandering Eel Khanee and Eelhaggie, their families, and their goods and chattels, and the most valuable of their farming stock, when the veiled beauties of the harems of nobility and royalty of Teheran and Ispahan will travel in saloon carriages, and when the vexed, hungry, and tired traveller, worried by want of sleep and tormented by *ennui* in a weary caravan going at the usual two and a-half miles an hour, prolonged through many weeks, will be able to book direct from Ispahan to the sea, by special train, timed to arrive at Bushire to catch the tidal boat (running three times a day to meet the Euphrates Railway) starting from the Khor Abdullah* by a fine jetty. The up-country traveller, if at Shiraz, would be looking out for time bills and notices of excursions leaving for Ispahan, stopping at Persepolis, Pasagardœ, with a few hours' stay to view those interesting relics of a great past, or pass a night at a railway hotel at Zargoon, the "half-way house" between Shiraz and Persepolis or at the junction at Mader-i-Suleiman (Mother of Solomon), to take a hasty glance round the tomb of Cyrus.

But all this being in the future, when the time for departure came, I had to fall back on Jaffir Khan, the charvadar, who had brought us from Bushire, and was willing, for a small increase in mule-hire, to take us on to Ispahan. Jaffir Khan, however, was not sure of a lucky day for the start, so went to consult an astrologer; meantime my factotum, Cyclops, looked about for a customer for Murwarie, as my Arab horse, Firhaud,† had arrived from Kazeroon, cured of the sprains he had received in coming through the Tung-i-Toorkun and I had no use for two horses.

* Khor Abdullah is a great inlet near the mouth of the Shatt-ul-Arab River, having Bubiyan Island on the west, and the Abdullah Banks (which form the west side of the Shatt-ul-Arab) on the east. It is twelve miles wide at its entrance, and runs north-west, to Wurbah Island, joining Khor Subbeyeh. The soundings in it are four to five fathoms; but it is never visited by European ships.

† Firhaud was the artist to whom is ascribed the sculptures of Beysittun, and he is scarcely less famous in Persian annals as the lover of the lovely Shereen, mistress of the monarch, Khoozroo Purveez, who ruled Persia for thirty-eight years, during thirty-two of which he established his claim to the title of "Great," which was not maintained by his conduct in the last six years of his life. The Persian legend has it that Khoozroo promised Firhaud that, if he cut through the rock of Beysittun, and brought a stream flowing on the other side of the hill into the valley, he should be rewarded with the hand of the lovely Shereen. He was at the point of completing his labour when the King, fearing to lose his mistress, sent an old woman to inform Firhaud that the object of his love was dead. The sculptor was at work on one of the highest parts of the rock when he heard the mournful intelligence, and immediately cast himself down and was dashed to pieces. As for Shereen she poisoned herself on the death of her royal lover, to escape the importunities of his profligate son, Schirouen, and the act has immortalized her name which, says Malcolm, "to this day is associated in Persia with all that is beautiful and delightful in the female sex."

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The days are commencing to get warm, though the nights are still cool, and having seen all I could at Shiraz, and disposed of Murwarie for a few krans less than I paid for him, I engaged four mules by the month, paying 120 krans for their services for that period, and bade adieu to Shiraz, going out of the Bagh-i-Shah gate, and flinging two or three krans to the gate-keeper who had waited on me, but to whom I had previously turned a deaf ear. This being the last day of the Ramazan, and the feast of the Bairam to-morrow, my Shiraz friends predicted that my muleteer would refuse to move for the next two days; however, daylight brought muleteer and mules, and at length, on Wednesday, 7th of May, I started from Shiraz for Persepolis and Ispahan. While *en route* I walked a great deal, and my Arab, Firhaud, used to go steadily on ahead of the mules, who always follow a Yâboo.* Firhaud never stopped as a rule, but went along by himself, whilst I went sometimes a-head and sometimes in rear of the kafilah, and sketched or inspected whatever was noticeable on the day's march, which was sometimes eight farsakhs, at others only five or six, breaking the monotony of the way by guft-u-gu, or conversation, with my servants or any chance wayfarer. My last act was to bid adieu to the Nawaub, and then I turned my face towards the Tung Alli Acbar, passing almost unobserved through the guard-house. As we left a large heap of stones on our right, Jaffir Khan and his assistant, a fine boy of fourteen, contributed their mite in the shape of a few boulders, with sundry execrations at whatever evil spirit was supposed to affect that locality, and whoever he or she may be, they must have a poor time of it, as no wayfarer, who has a regard for his spiritual or temporal welfare during the journey, neglects this little attention.

The traveller quickly loses sight of the unrivalled valley of Shiraz, and the usual dreary wilderness has now to be encountered. On the whole, the road to Zargoon, our first munzil, was monotonous in the extreme, leading principally through an arid country, having the little stream of Rocknabad for the first few miles on our left, with a scanty edge of verdure and such few flowers as are found hereabouts. The hills on both sides, which are some distance from the road, are tame in outline, and of no height to attract admiration; but to anyone having an eye for colour, some pleasure is afforded in watching the fleeting purple shadows, varying in depth, and contrasting with the brown, sombre slopes on which they rest. The sun daily gathers more power till the end of May or beginning of June, when the mules

* There are four distinct kinds of horses in Persia. There is the original Turkoman breed, a large powerful animal; the yâboo, or common hack, stouter and rather larger than our galloway; the smaller Arabian breed, introduced, says Chesney, by Nadir Shah; and lastly, a cross between this animal and the Turkoman horse, known as the *bid-pai* (wind-footed), which is the most prized in Iran. It is contrary to custom to crop the tails and manes, which are frequently dyed, the favourite colours being orange, red, or yellow.

are compelled to work by night, and the traveller must go with them, notwithstanding the discomfort and fatigue such a journey entails. On this day's march, if I except a short descent into another valley, similar but wider than the first, and a few trees, a little water, and a ruined caravanserai, there was nothing to remark till Zargoon was reached, five farsakhs from Shiraz.

Zargoon caravanserai is a kind of halfway-house between Shiraz and Persepolis, and if a railway was ever completed, would certainly be immortalized by a station, when the old caravanserai, with a few modern improvements, might perhaps be known as the "Lion and Sun." Zargoon has evidently seen better days and entertained a larger population, and there is no reason why it should not again be a large and stirring place. Water and pasturage are very good, as is clearly shown by the numerous nomads located here, with their flocks sprinkled over the plain. Almost every town in Persia possesses a caravanserai, and often an imamzadah, or tomb of some relative of one of the twelve Imams. Zargoon possesses these and a chuppar-khoneh, or post-house. The old caravanserai here is similar to most of these fortified refuges, which stand out as memorials of a time when more attention was paid to the safety and comfort of the wayfarer than at present. Enclosed within high walls, built sometimes of well-burnt brick—which one never meets with now—and having bastions at each corner, it includes a large area, having open cells round the court, and cloisters inside, with one entrance, which was secured with strong iron-plated doors bolted from within. These fine old buildings—each having a history of its own, could they speak—are well calculated to protect their inmates from any attack that could be made by robbers. Over the entrance gateway is an upper-room which often, from its ruinous state, is open to all the winds of heaven, but, when in repair, makes a very decent apartment both in summer and winter. One of the advantages in the Bala Khoneh, as it is called, are the narrowness of the stairs leading to it, so that an attendant can always defend them against intrusive familiarity or curiosity; however, this can generally be provided against below, by having a tarpaulin, or curtain in front of one's cell, which also serves to keep out the wind and rain. It may be mentioned that the dalandar, or gate-keeper, is solely responsible for opening and shutting the gates, and can be very troublesome in this way if he chooses. He also keeps, or is supposed to keep, firewood, boosa (or chopped straw) for the mules, and very scanty provision for human beings. People who travel with dishonest or careless domestics are to be pitied, for often these dalandars practise gross extortion, but I was well served by Cyclops, who carried great weight, and although I knew many a battle was fought on our departure with an usorious dalandar, yet it never caused me uneasiness, and I rarely heard of it, except

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as a matter of guft-u-gu, (or conversation) during the day's travel.

The evening I was at Zargoon I shot some duck in a swamp, near the caravanserai, and had a pleasant stroll round the Imam Zadah and amongst some of the goat's-hair tents of the Eeliats, whose camp-fires, as evening closed in, lit up the plain. Leaving early we passed the Imam Zadah and burial ground, and the spur of a lofty hill under which Zargoon is situated, and turning northward into a wide valley, and crossing a swamp by a rough but substantial causeway of stone, we approached, after a march of about twenty-six miles from Shiraz and eight from Zargoon, the river Bendameer,* of which Moore sings:—

"There's a bower of roses by Bendameer's stream,
And the nightingale sings round it all the day long."

Travellers in these regions who are intimate with the "Lalla Rookh" of Moore, will agree that he sometimes carries the privileges of his craft too far. His descriptive passages of such barren, rocky, uninteresting islands as Ormuz, Kishm, and other places, are simply misleading, and though the lines on Bendameer may be beautiful as specimens of versification, poetic license, save in the above instance, has seldom been so greatly stretched. "A less promising place," says Binning, "for roses and nightingales I never witnessed. Bendameer is a deep turbid and particularly ugly river, passing through a country in no way remarkable for beauty or verdure, and as little likely to be the chosen spot for Philomel and her beloved flower as any place I wot of." The Bendameer which has here a breadth of about forty yards, is formed by the junction of the other streams uniting just above the bridge, which is a fine old structure, but now in such bad repair that mules find it difficult to pass over without an accident. These small rivers are sluggish and without any redeeming quality, with high banks, and are scarcely fordable.

I confess I looked out expectantly for Persepolis and its wonderful ruins, on crossing the bridge, but, although the hill is visible to the north, under which is the site of the ruins, yet these are some one and a-half miles from the village of Kinaureh where travellers put up, and from which Takht-i-Jemsheed or Chihal Minar—by which name Persepolis is known among the Persians—distant thirty-five miles from Shiraz, is easily seen and reached. Kinaureh is about six miles from the Bendameer river, and is a

* "The Bendameer," says Binning, "derives its name from a village so called about six or seven miles east of the bridge, where there is a large 'bund,' or embankment constructed by a famous chief in former times, who though only the grandson of a poor fisherman made himself sovereign of all Southern Persia. The river is formed by the junction of two others which unite just above the bridge. One of these streams is the Koor, or Koom Ferooz, anciently called the Araxes, which rises about twenty miles to the westward and the other is the Polvar rising some fifty miles to the north among the mountains. The bridge over the Bendameer, named Poole Khan, is about fourteen miles from Zargoon. It is of three arches and leads to the broad plain of Mervdasht."

poor village with a few gardens on the west side, well cultivated and looked after. I found beans (barcolah), onions, radishes, and young cabbage all planted in small square beds, and irrigated from a fine well in the centre, kept going all day, and a rude mud building had been erected for containing tools, and the produce of the garden; there were a few flowers here also, the Gul-i-Zar, golden rose, hawthorn, with apple and plum trees, the remaining space being filled up with barley and lucerne. The water-courses we had to ford, and the wooden bridges, (when they were present, which was not very often) we had to cross, were vexatiously tedious to one like myself, approaching for the first time a site of such transcendent and universal interest as Persepolis. However, the hoary old pillars, (alas! few are remaining now), the gigantic platform on which the whole system of Jemsheed's "throne," has been raised, the tomb of the Kings in the mountains in rear, and the magnificent flight of steps leading to these imposing remains of a powerful and historical nation, at last came clearly into view. My first impressions were decidedly disappointing. In the height of its grandeur and prosperity, Persepolis could not have presented a very striking appearance, that is on approaching it from the plain. As Saadi beautifully expresses it: "A lofty minaret shows low at the foot of Mount Alwand," a mountain thirty miles east of Teheran, whose snowy peak I have often seen from Koom, one hundred miles distant. The huge wall of mountains rising immediately at the back of Persepolis must have always detracted from its grandeur and magnificence, and the city was much inferior in commercial importance and picturesqueness to Susa, which stood in an open plain, with nothing in immediate proximity to dwarf the grandeur of her buildings. Lying under the lee of a great mountainous range, the columns of Pesepolis rise like the masts of ships, stranded on an iron-bound coast, and their otherwise majestic appearance is lost in the magnitude of the huge rocky mass towering above them. Whatever may be the present aspect of these world-famous ruins, it is certain that in the time of their pristine glory, they rivalled the grandest architectural achievements of Greece and Rome. So writes Malcolm, who gives no account of the remains of the Takht-i-Jemsheed, as he pleads that many minute descriptions have been recorded by former travellers and historians. That great scholar and soldier-statesman, with his fine artistic perception eloquently says:—

"Among the traces of a nation's former glory. There is none on which the mind dwells with more serious thought than on the magnificent ruins of its ancient palaces. How forcibly are we reminded of our mortality, when we are told that an edifice, in the erection of which a kingdom's wealth had been exhausted, adorned with every ornament that the art of the world could supply, and the history of which was engraven on the imperishable rocks it was

founded upon, has not only fallen into decay, but that its founder is unknown, and the language, in which its history was written, is no longer spoken by man! Persia abounds with such remains of forgotten splendour; in the emphatic words of a poet* of that nation. "The spider weaves its web in the palace of Cæsar! The owl stands sentinel upon the watch-tower of Afrasiab!" Malcolm speaks of the inscriptions at Persepolis being undecipherable, but another Indian officer, scarcely less eminent or learned, has found the key by which the cuniform letters can be read. Sir Henry Rawlinson gives the following translation of the inscription† repeated on each pier of the magnificent palace of Xerxes, which with other buildings stood on the great platform: "The great god, Ahura-mazda, (Ormazd) he it is who has given (made) this world, who has given mankind, who has made Xerxes king, both king of the people and law-giver of the people. I am Xerxes the King, the great King, the King of Kings, the King of the many peopled countries, the supporter also of the great world, the son of King Darius the Achæmenian. Says Xerxes the King, by the grace of Ormazd I have made this gate of entrance, (or this public portal) there is many another nobler work besides (or in) this Persepolis, which I have executed and which my father has executed. Whatsoever noble works are to be seen, we have executed all of them by the grace of Ormazd. Says Xerxes the King, may Ormazd protect me and my empire. Both that which has been executed by me and that which has been executed by my father, may Ormazd protect it."‡ An ancient Persian historian gives the following account of Persepolis: "Jemsheed built a fortified palace at the foot of a hill, which bounds the fine plain of Murdasht to the north-west. The platform on which it was built has three faces to the plain, and one to the

* The celebrated Firdousee, author of the "Shah-nameh" (Book of Kings) a work of great value both from an historical and poetic point of view.

† The cuniform inscriptions at Persepolis are only less important than those on the rock tablets at Behistun or Bisutun, which were deciphered by Sir Henry Rawlinson, thus giving the key to that adaptation of the cuniform character in which the Assyrian records were inscribed. The inscriptions alike at Persepolis and Behistun were trilingual, the tablets being divided with three columns, each column having a version of the same inscription, in one of the languages used by the three nations, Babylonian (including the Assyrian), the Persian and Tartar, each language being written in the modification of the cuniform character peculiar to it. Sir Henry Rawlinson, from his intimacy with Persia, was enabled after long and patient labour to decipher the Assyrian records, though the difficulty was greatly increased by the circumstance that there were nearly four hundred different signs in the Assyrian, and only thirty or forty in the Persian, but the clue to the value of the others was derived from the study of the proper names.

‡ The first portion of this translation, ending with the words "Darius the Achæmenian," is identical with the version of Lassen quoted by Sir Henry Rawlinson in the Royal Asiatic Journal Vol. X. Part II. p. 319. M. Burnouf also made a translation of this inscription, and a similar one relating to Darius at Hamadan, differing slightly from the above (see his "Mémoires sur deux Inscriptions Cuneiformes trouvées près d'Hamadan," p. 121). In the inscriptions on the southern wall of the great platform, each containing twenty-four lines, one gives the names of the natives dependent on Darius Hystaspes, who built the palace, and his son, Xerxes.

mountain. It is formed of a hard black granite. The elevation from the plain is ninety feet; and every stone used in the building is from nine to twelve feet in proportion. There are two great flights of stairs to this palace, so easy of ascent, that a man can ride up on horseback; and on the platform a palace has been erected, part of which still remains in its original state, and part in ruins. The palace of Jemsheed is that now called the Chehel-Setoon, or forty pillars. Each pillar is formed of a carved stone, is sixty feet high, and is ornamented in a manner so delicate, that it would seem difficult to rival this sculpture upon hard granite in a carving upon the softest wood. There is no granite like that of which these pillars are made to be now found in Persia; and it is unknown from whence it was brought. Some most beautiful and extraordinary figures ornament this palace; and all the pillars which once supported the roof, (for that has fallen) are composed of three pieces of stone, joined in so exquisite a manner, as to make the beholder believe that the whole shaft is one piece. There are several figures of Jemsheed in the sculpture; in one, he has an urn in his hand, in which he burns benjamin, while he stands adoring the sun. In another, he is represented as seizing the mane of a lion with one hand, while he stabs him with the other." The Persians who call the ruins of Persepolis, Takht-i-Jemsheed, say, that Homai, the daughter of Ardisheer, greatly improved the royal mansion, which she made her constant residence. The city was devastated by Alexander at the time of its capture, but the palace was spared, only however, to be fired by Alexander himself, at the instigation of Thais, an Athenian courtezan, while indulging in one of those fits of wild debauchery which constitute so great a stain on his character, forming a dramatic incident in the career of the "Macedonian madman." In the treasury of Darius was found, says Quintus Curtius, the almost fabulous sum of 120,000 talents, equal to twenty-seven millions* of our currency. The scarped rock behind the great terrace is supposed to be the remains of the citadel, or acropolis, where was stored the royal treasure, the receptacles for the bodies of the Persian Kings being excavations at some distance above the ground, without a regular entrance. The city of Istakhr, near which it stood, says Malcolm, long survived the destruction of the throne of Jemsheed,† and its inhabitants were distinguished by their inveterate hatred of the

* The mass of Darius' treasure was stored in the citadel of Susa, and including the spoils of Lydia, which Cyrus conveyed to Ecbatana, amounted to 445,000 talents, or 90½ millions of pounds sterling.

† The final ruin of Persepolis took place in the latter part of the tenth century. Fryer, a quaint old writer who visited these ruins in the seventeenth century, says:—"In this august place only eighteen pillars of forty remain, about fifty feet high, and half an ell diameter, of the distance of eight paces one from another, though we could count the twenty-two bases which agree with the Persian memoirs, who therefore still call it Chul Minar—the palace of forty pillars. These may be seen on the plain a great way, and at present are the residencies only of the tyrants of the lakes and fens, storks only keeping their court here, every pillar

conquerors of their country, and as if inspired by those fragments of former glory which surrounded them, were not finally subdued till several centuries after the Arabians first overran Persia.

A poet of our own nation, James Montgomery, writes in terms the justice of which must have commended itself to those who have visited similar "remains of hoar antiquity."

"Here desolation keeps unbroken Sabbath,
'Mid caves and temples, palaces and sepulchres;
Ideal images in sculptured forms,
Thoughts hewn in columns, or in caverned hill,
In honour of their deities and of their dead."

Although the first appearance and approach to the ruins of Persepolis is disappointing, it is impossible for the visitor, when after easily surmounting the magnificent staircase by which the ruined temples are reached, he first sets foot upon the platform and is able to take in the *coup-d'œil*, to withhold his admiration at the inventive genius and industry which could have planned and carried out so vast and substantial a monument of a nation whose history is lost in the haze of antiquity, the very name of the city being unknown, for the word Persepolis is evidently of Greek origin, and the other titles by which it is known are unquestionably modern. To give anything like a full description of these beautiful remains is not my purpose here, for if only a quarter of the great travellers whose names figure on the giant warders* of Jemsheed's temple-palace, have published their re-

having a nest of them. Beyond these, many pieces and scraps of antiquity offer us a view of Colossus supporting vast giants, as if they had been yeomen of the guard in the anteroom to the presence chamber, which was eighty feet square where on the fragments of walls standing over the porticoes especially, were most curiously cut out of most delicate white shining marble, men in military habit like the old Grecian phalanx (if these we leave for conjecture), encompassing a monarch represented sitting on his throne, with a moving canopy, such as the Eastern Kings have carried over them. On other parts, Bucephalus, or if that please not, some Persian steed priding himself to carry an Emperor or some demigod, because neither Quintus Curtius, nor after him, Plutarch, mention the re-edifying the palace either by Alexander or any of his captains, yet I cannot let it pass without the remark, that they are habited more like the ancient Grecians than Persians now are, besides the hair of their heads is hanging down, not tied up, which is different from the modern fashion of the country. In this apartment eight doors seem to answer each other, two on each side of every square, which conformity is attended with extraordinary elegance and workmanship. The roof seems never to have had any intervening pillars. and whether the beams were of cedar, it is not so fortunate as to have a voucher of its own nation. Many other parts declared cost and pains enough, but nothing more worthy study than the characters formerly impressed and engraved, which would unfold the truth of the founders of the building, were this as intelligible as legible, for they remain like the handwriting on the wall, "Mene Tekel," till some divine expositor interpret them, and yet I must say enough of the characters may be found in the Greek Alphabet." The divine expositor, as we see above, has appeared in Sir Henry Rawlinson.

* Fryer thus describes them:—"We encountered two horrid shapes both for grandeur and unwontedness being all in armour or coat of mail, striking a terror on those about to intrude. Their countenances were of the fiercest lions, and might pass for such had not high wings made them flying griffins, and their bulk

searches and opinions of Persepolis, enough and to spare in the way of description has been done, and one need only record for reference the works of Sir John Malcolm, Messrs. Rich, Morier, Buckingham, and Sir G. Ouseley, whose book has plans and plates of the ruins. The traveller and antiquarian anxiously awaits the interpretation of the cuniform inscriptions which we know have been in the hands of Grotefeud, Sir H. Rawlinson, and others for many years, and if these fail to solve the problem, I do not know how it will ever be accomplished—I mean as to what uses the several temples and halls were put, and what they were intended for. We can surmise, from certain sculptures found in the ruins, that the worship of fire was carried on here, and it is asserted by historians that Alexander, in a moment of intoxication, set fire to the great palace, B.C. 330, and further that the riches of the town, whose ruins, even as they exist at this day, are of indescribable magnificence, were so immense, that 20,000 mules and 5,000 horses were laden with the spoil. But the present unbelieving age have cast very grave doubts on these details, though for my own part, regarding the ruins as they are now to be seen, and having roughly sketched many parts, I am inclined to believe with modern Persian historians, that it has been destroyed by the Moslem conquerors of the country.

The first day of my visit here was nearly entirely devoted to roaming over the several temples and tombs scattered in indescribable confusion, and in every stage of dilapidation, over the platform; and it was with no common feelings of delight, and almost awe, that when my curiosity had been a little satisfied, I was enabled quietly to seat myself before the "Hall of Columns," and to sketch in as much as my time would permit, though, of course, it was impossible to insert the rows of figures in procession on the famous front of the terrace, which has justly called forth the admiration and wonder of all visitors.

Of the seventy-two pillars which originally constituted this hall, (not forty, as Fryer and the Persians assert,) thirteen only remained at my visit; Mr. Binning, in 1850, speaks of the same number, Morier mentions that sixteen were erect in 1809, and Pietro Della Valle, who visited Takht-i-Jemsheed in 1621, counted twenty-five pillars. To what purpose this magnificent hall, which has an area of 380 feet by about 350 feet, was devoted has never been ascertained, and travellers are undecided whether it possessed a roof or not, or even whether the whole place was really ever completed. Connoisseurs differ in their opinions as to the beauty of the few columns that remain erect, but they are certainly indicative of a measure of taste and design, however

and hinder parts exceeded the largest elephants." It may be presumed that Fryer mistook for armour the locks of hair arranged to resemble the mane on the neck of a bull.

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we may now smile at the primitiveness of the architecture. To my mind, the design indicates stability and massiveness of structure, rather than lightness and elegance, and it is, of course, in every way inferior to the Parthenon and the beautiful temples of the Acropolis, but then no nation has yet been found who could approach in any way to the glorious old Greeks in their inventive faculty and appreciation of what is true and noble in art, as well as in their faultless knowledge of beauty in everything they copied from life. But Persepolis was built, as it were, in the infancy of art, and very likely much of what there is was copied from others. The coarse and conventional style of the gigantic warders of the entrance gateway, and in most of the figures of animals and human beings, quite evidence a want of appreciation of real beauty in form and design, but life there is, and, taken as a whole, there are signs of a real love of art in sculpture and architecture that even we, in our boasted age of culture and knowledge, may well admire. I need not point to the beautiful procession of figures, supposed to represent the festival of Noorooz, (or New Year's Day,) on the front of the "Hall of Columns," and to the representation of the King in state seated in his chair, with attendants and soldiers in groups, their arms, and other accessories, which is seen in the ruins of a similar large temple laying to the north-east of the Hall of Columns. Most of this is in good preservation, and it is to be hoped will be perpetuated either by photography or drawings. Beyond, at the back and southward of the Hall of Columns, I had a clear view of the smaller terrace raised a little above the larger hall, and approached like it by a ruined flight of steps. This building is quadrangular, with massive marble window-frames and doorways, one of its most striking features being the beautiful black material of which it is composed, bearing a high polish either from design or age. The searchers after records in arrow-headed character, must have found a rich harvest here, but a great deal of the temple is buried in *débris*. There is, however, a small low pillar here bearing a long inscription in this mysterious character, in good preservation, and there are others also, but all shattered and dilapidated. As in many other places, we find the figure of the King in his chair, on the marble walls, with his attendants surrounding him with a fly-flap and umbrella, and, in other places, a man engaged in personal combat with a unicorn, or some rampant monster, and many other effigies of guards and attendants as large as life. But these representations become wearisome from their sameness and iteration, and whilst there are abundant tokens that the old Persian sculptors were not altogether ignorant of anatomy, one cannot but feel that, at the best, they were but imitators of others, whether Egyptians or Assyrians, if they actually did not

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avail themselves of workmen from these more ancient and decidedly superior predecessors in art.

Behind this beautiful temple, nearer the mountain, and also again further southward, are most extensive ruins of doorways, broken pillars, and *débris* of all kind, and, a short way up the hill, at the back, and, perhaps, a quarter of a mile from the high wall which encircles the whole of Takht-i-Jemsheed, are the tombs of the Kings, so often described by travellers. We have here clear indications of fire worship, and the mysterious Feroher hovers about the solitary figure officiating at the altar with a fire blazing upon it. The most interesting portion of the ruins has yet to be mentioned, at least, it is so, speaking from an artistic point of view—I allude to the entrance gateway. As the traveller, having surmounted the staircase, finds himself facing the pair of gigantic warders, whatever they may be, for they are now headless, who look over the plain to the westward, a considerable space intervenes, on which there are two pillars resembling some found in the Hall of Columns. There were evidently two more at the same distance, and then we find a similar portal with two colossal bulls.*

* The late General Chesney in his admirable and comprehensive work on the Euphrates Expedition (Vol. I. p. 619), describes the remains of Persepolis, which he says was constructed of more durable materials than Ctesiphon, Seleucia, and the other Sassanian cities. A spacious niche, sculptured in the face of the work, 130 feet high and 72 wide, forms the façade of the principal tomb, which is in two portions, both highly finished. The upper compartment represents a kind of chest, having numerous figures sculptured on it; also a fire altar, with a figure standing in the act of adoration, and an attendant spirit hovering above. A false door forms part of the sculpture of the second division, and through its lower part a passage has been broken into the tomb itself. The latter is 21 feet long, by 11 feet broad, and contains two sarcophagi cut out of the rock. The second tomb is a little way eastward of the first, and the niche at the entrance contains figures in relief; it is nearly of the same design as the first, but is more ruinous, and probable more ancient. The other objects of antiquity are in front of the tombs and occupy different parts of a grand terrace, which forms a very irregular parallelogram at the foot of a stupendous range of rocks. According to the measurements taken by Colonel D'Arcy, R.A., the terrace on the eastern side is nearly 1,600 feet long, and three of the sides are surrounded by massive walls, having in each a number of breaks or indentures forming right angles; but the direct distance from side to side are respectively 1,540 feet for the western face, 893 feet for the northern, and for the southern face 703 feet. This terrace is approached near the northern extremity of its western side, by means of two double flights of steps, which are separated by a landing place, thirty-seven feet long by twenty-four feet wide; and so gradual is the ascent, that it is suited for horsemen. It is constructed with such ponderous blocks of marble, that each piece contains several steps, seventeen feet long by eighteen inches broad and three inches deep; and the pieces are so neatly joined that the whole has the appearance of having been cut out of the solid rock. A little way from the top of this grand approach the road leads through two gigantic portals, and there are yet standing two of the four great columns which once occupied the space between the two entrances the heights of which are thirty-nine feet and twenty-eight feet respectively. The front and interior sides of the first portal are supported by two huge unicorns, 14½ feet high, and those of the second, by two winged animals, each having the head of a man, which is covered with a kind of cap; the unicorns are in front of the grand staircase, and the other animals are towards the mountains. The ruins occupy different parts of the

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As the afternoon wore on, and the sun declining in the west caused the "flying griffons" of Fryer, and their stupendous portals, to cast long and deep shadows on the platform, I fell into a reverie. Everything around me wore such a silent, solemn, and mysterious aspect, that I almost expected to see some of the 1,300 figures, said to exist in the ruins, warm into life from out the marble pilasters and slabs, and repeople the halls, erected

terrace southward of the grand ascent, and form separate inclosures, each with three or four apartments on different levels. Four of these portions are of a square form, and nearly of the same kind of architecture; the numerous doorways and window-frames are of striking dimensions, and beautiful proportions, and many of them still retain their places. The portals are formed of huge blocks of dark polished marble, having niches with bas-reliefs of superior workmanship; and they are also remarkable for that kind of bold cornice, which so generally terminates the portals of the Egyptian temples. In addition to the architectural ornaments around the inclosures, and the vestiges of columns scattered about the interior, the supporting walls contain numerous groups of figures representing combats between men and animals of imaginary forms, all sculptured with great care. One compartment represents a monarch, or some other distinguished person, followed by two attendants, clad like himself in long robes; one of them carries a fly-flap, and the other holds an umbrella above the head of the chief. In another compartment there is a figure seated upon a high chair, resembling one of those specimens of gothic carved work, which are occasionally to be seen in our time. In the fifth and principal portion of the ruins are the remains of the grand colonnade of the hall of reception or temple; the platform of which extends 162 feet southward of the portals, and communicates with the lower portion of the grand terrace by means of a double staircase of finished workmanship. This, like the principal approach, has two pairs of flights; and its sides, as well as the adjoining walls are thickly covered with figures in relief, disposed in different compartments and groups. The principal scene represents a grand procession, composed of the royal guards and attendants, all clad in the ancient Persian costume, armed with bows, quivers, spears, and shields; other individuals wearing short dresses, and apparently captives of various nations, follow in succession, leading chariots, horses, oxen, and camels, and bearing gifts and offerings. In a separate compartment is represented a fight between a lion and another animal like a unicorn, with an arrow-headed inscription at the side of the figures. A little way from the edge of the terrace may be traced the remains of four divisions of columns, consisting of a central group flanked by a lower one on each side, with a fourth at right angles to the others. Thirteen of these noble columns are standing, and the positions once occupied by fifty-nine others may still be traced, as well as portions of their remains; within the enclosure there are likewise at intervals four huge blocks of stone, which were either pedestals for figures or portions of portals. Some remains of Kanats, partly of masonry, and partly cut in the solid rock, extend from the hills to this part of the ruins. The great columns are of an order of architecture peculiar to this place, and of two sizes. The cup and leaves of a pendant lotus form the pedestal. The shaft is finely fluted in fifty-two divisions, and is 16 feet in circumference below; but, at about two thirds of its height, it has a swell, and it terminates with a very peculiar kind of capital, which seems to represent the hinder parts of two animals, resembling bulls of different sizes, so joined together as to have between them a hollow suited for the reception of one extremity of a beam or stone to support the roof. The whole is composed of white marble blocks, beautifully fitted, and connected by an iron spindle running up the centre; the greater columns are 86 feet in height, and the lesser about 60 feet, both kinds having the same relative proportions. The form of the capitals, together with the indications that they were used as supports, show that the edifice had at one time a roof. In such a climate this must have been indispensable, whether the structure were a palace or a temple; a portion at each side was lower than the centre, and this style of building is still followed in the halls of reception at Ispahan.

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ages ago by men, who, in their dress and aspect, were living, moving representations of these stony effigies, which will, in all probability, remain for as many ages to come in much the same state of preservation, if allowed by the hand of Jones from London, Robinson from Calcutta, or Brown from no one knows where, who come this way and cut their names on the gateway, or if spared by the wild Eeliaut sheep-tender, of whom one or two passed through the ruins whilst I was there. What Processions and Triumphal Gatherings have ascended and descended this splendid, wide, grey marble staircase, still in passable preservation, through the blocks at the top and side of which shrubs and saplings force their unrestrained passage! What Royal Bridals and Burials, and Coronations, and New Years' Ceremonies, similar to those perpetuated in the beautiful frieze of the Chikel Minar; and what numberless other sacred and secular occasions of mourning or rejoicing of Church and State, have not been performed in these stupendous halls and temples! The same warm sun, now as then, shines out of the blue unclouded heaven, the same rotation of crops takes place, seed time and harvest, summer and winter, with their appointed ceremonies, run their stated course. The soft spring air blows now as then, and the same streams meander through the valley of Mervdasht. But where is the city and all its countless edifices, and the gardens that we know were laid out in front of Persepolis, the immense suburbs of which probably reached to the site of the tombs of the Kings and Nakh-shi-Rustam? But my servant comes, rouses me from my reverie by the information that we cannot stay here till dark, as the Lurs—or inhabitants of Luristan, who bear an evil reputation—the name he gives all Eeliaut and other thieves, are nigh at hand, so we descend the grand stone steps and retrace our way to our lodging at Kinaureh, two miles distant.

"HODSON'S HORSE."

AN HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE 9TH BENGAL CAVALRY.

By Major Dudley Sampson.

At the present time, when a good many of the military and other eyes of Europe are turned attentively towards the Indian Contingent lately at Malta, a brief sketch of one of its most distinguished regiments may not perhaps be unacceptable to the general reader; at least it is in this belief that the writer of the following paper places it before the public.

Now it will at once be seen by glancing at the above heading, that the regiment which now bears the nomenclature of the 9th

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Bengal Cavalry was, during the first period of its existence, a portion of that Brigade of "Hodson's Horse" which served with such distinction and *éclat* during the Indian Mutinies of 1857-58.

Looking still further back, we shall find that this brigade merges itself into the one original regiment, raised by the officer whose name it bore, under the walls of Delhi, and it is therefore necessary to give the complete history of the latter, in order to form anything like a correct idea regarding the services of the former.

At the same time it will perhaps tend to a clearer view of the subject generally, if in describing these services, we look upon the terms "Hodson's Horse," "1st Regiment Hodson's Horse," and "9th Regiment of Bengal Cavalry" as synonymous (employing the two former titles in all historical accounts prior to 1861), for—although not actually the same corps in its integrity—still the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, and 5th Troops of the present regiment were raised from the 1st, 4th, 6th, 7th, and 8th troops of the original corps, and consequently a very fair portion of the men who served in "Hodson's Horse" in 1857-58 are even now present in the ranks of the 9th.

"Hodson's Horse" was raised at a time when the British Government were in sore and urgent need of soldiers. It is sufficient to name the month of May, 1857, to recall to the memory a period—throughout India—of great trial and dismay; with the main body of the Army in the pay of the Honourable East Indian Company in revolt, and with all eyes turned with intense anxiety towards the Punjab.

For it was emphatically from this province that the help so terribly needed was hoped for, and one of the first earnests of that help, and a good will and loyalty towards British rule was the formation of the regiment under notice.

Scarcely a week, indeed, had elapsed since the mutinous outbreaks at Delhi and Meerut, when orders were issued to Lieutenant W. S. R. Hodson of the 1st Bengal Fusiliers, already somewhat distinguished as a cavalry officer, to raise and equip a regiment of Irregular Cavalry on the usual rates of pay.

This order was given on the 19th of May, 1857, by General Anson, the Commander-in-Chief in India, and was immediately acted upon. With the assistance of Mr. Montgomery, Judicial Commissioner of the Punjab, together with that of three provincial Sirdars, Shumsher Singh, Seg Singh, and Emamoodeen, between four and five troops were successfully raised and fairly equipped within five weeks of its publication.

It would be perhaps superfluous to dilate here upon the immense amount of difficulty to be surmounted before anything like a complete organization could be effected. Setting aside all those of a political nature—themselves of the gravest character—it will be sufficient to allude to those entailed by the haste which was absolutely necessary in recruiting, equipping and partially drilling

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the men, to the distance over which these men had to be hurried before they could be of any actual value, and to the infinite anxieties, disappointments, and annoyances to which their leader was of necessity exposed, but which were only natural in such a time of panic and general disorganization.

Notwithstanding all this, however, the recruiting of "Hodson's Horse" proceeded with extraordinary rapidity and success.

On the 10th of June, 1857, between 300 and 400 men had already enlisted. Of these, two troops raised at Lahore, were then on the march towards Delhi, whilst a third and fourth were being organized, and a fifth had already been formed at Jugraan.

On the 12th of July, 300 of the newly raised men had arrived in the camp before Delhi, and by the 25th of the same month, the new regiment was complete, and had even been actually engaged. Thus was this corps fit for active service in seven weeks, from the day upon which the order for its being raised had been issued.

From the 12th of July to the 14th of August, "Hodson's Horse" was with the Army before Delhi, but on the latter date they were detached from the Army Head-Quarters, and ordered to march towards Rohtuck and Bohur.

At the latter place they assisted in the attack upon and defeat of a large force of rebels, on which occasion the Commander-in-Chief (Major-General Wilson), in a letter to Lieutenant Hodson, expresses "his thanks for the able manner in which he carried out the instructions given him." The Major-General also "thanks the European officers, Native officers and men composing the detachment, for their steady and gallant behaviour."

"Hodson's Horse" returned to Delhi on the 24th of August, and from that date again took part in the operations before that city until its final capture.

But up to this time, that is up to the 14th of September, we have only been called upon to examine a certain body of men, useful and soldierlike it is true, but merely on a par with other hastily raised levies, half-drilled and but half-trusted.

The day was close at hand, however, when the name of the regiment should be on everyone's tongue, and when its reputation, formed by an act of almost unparalled *élan* and bravery, should be carried throughout the whole, not only of India, but of Europe, as a type of all that was brilliant and daring. The feat alluded to and which took place six or seven days after the fall of the city, was the capture at Humayoon's Tomb of the King and Princes of Delhi.

During the night of the 19th of September, Hodson received information that the King, together with the Begum, his sons (Mirza, Mogul and Shidr Sultan) and his Nephew (Aboo Babir) had taken up a position with a large number of followers in this building.

Immediately (and independantly) acting upon this with but

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seventy-five sabres of his own regiment (a large per centage of whom were until lately in the 1st squadron, 9th Bengal Cavalry), he at once rode down to the Tomb, resolved, by a bold movement, to effect the capture of these personnages who, from their position, if not from their personal influence, actively exerted, were to be looked upon as the very germs of the rebellion. The 20th of September was devoted to the taking of he King himself, together with the Begum and her youngest son, Zumma Bukt, and these, after a vast degree of fatigue, anxiety and risk, were before nightfall, safely relodged in Delhi as prisoners. On the morning of the 21st, the seizure of the three Princes was decided upon, and Hodson again rode down to Hamayoon's Tomb.

Lieutenant Macdowell, the second in command, and the only other officer (European) present on the occasion, computes the King's followers in and about the Tomb itself, at 3,000, whilst the neighbouring suburbs swarmed with armed men.

Halting his small party at about half-a-mile distant, Hodson sent on Ressaldar (now Ressaldar Major) Man Singh to parley with the Princes, and a most anxious interval of an hour elapsed before the Native officer returned. He brought a message from the Shahzadas asking whether, if they then and there surrendered themselves, their lives would be spared.

Hodson's reply was that no terms could be made with *them*—the Shahzadas,—although the lives of the King, together with those of Zeenut Mahal and her youngest son (Zumma Bukt) would probably be held sacred. After another long delay these terms, extraordinary as it may doubtless appear, were submitted to, and, escorted by ten men of "Hodson's Horse," that is by those who accompanied Ressaldar Man Singh into their presence, the three Shahzadas seated on a "rut," or four-wheeled vehicle drawn by bullocks, came out from under the archway of the Tomb. Behind them thronged an enormous crowd of rebels and fanatics eager to fall upon the escort, which appeared but as a speck in their midst, threatening every moment to render the notable and daring undertaking not only a failure, but a tragedy. It is impossible not to admit that it was only by the extraordinary self-possession and intrepidity of Hodson himself that such an untoward result did not take place. But to stave off such result, the most prompt, decisive, and energetic measures were absolutely and vitally necessary, and so, immediately the cart containing the princes had got clear of the gateway, the rest of the detachment was rapidly drawn up across the road, between the vehicle itself and the infuriated mob that followed it. Then, whilst the ten men in charge of the Shahzadas hurried the unwilling driver on in the direction of Delhi, Hodson and Macdowell, with the remainder of the party, moved slowly but resolutely down upon the crowd, driving it back step by step within the enclosure of the Tomb, and it was probably at this critical juncture that Hodson's extraordinary moral

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influence over the rebel masses of the Natives made itself most apparent, for after a little dangerous hesitation, *three thousand men laid down their arms to sixty-five!* Meanwhile the cart containing the princes moved slowly on its way towards the city, and when within a mile of the Lahore gate, Hodson and his troopers overtook it.

The act which now immediately followed is to be approached with a good deal of careful scrutiny and deliberation, partly from the great discrepancy overspreading the various different accounts procurable—and all of which I have endeavoured conscienciously to analyze and, if possible, reconcile—partly from a knowledge of the very different views taken of that act, both by the public and by the press, not only in India but in Europe, and partly from an impression that in a paper such as the one under construction, any expression of opinion or conviction may be looked upon, if not perhaps as emanating from a very natural partiality as a member of "Hodson's Horse," at all events as being in some degree unnecessary and superfluous.

The act alluded to, it need scarcely be said, is the summary disposal of the Delhi Princes by the hand of Hodson himself. It is curious to find the extraordinary amount of difference of opinion that existed and unfortunately still exists with regard to the justification or non-justification of the manner in which this deed was accomplished. Lieutenant Macdowell in his letter describing the scene (and we could have no more valuable evidence than this), shows clearly that the proceeding was, under the circumstances of the case, one of the very gravest necessity. The surviving members of the escort also all agree, at least upon this point, although oddly enough, a moiety of them deny the existence of the crowd at the moment of the deed, whose threatening aspect would of course form one of its chief incentives, whilst Sir Thomas Seton and Mr. Montgomery, both men whose opinions are in the highest degree trustworthy, are most earnest not only in commending the act itself, but even in eulogizing its "perpetrator"—as he has been termed—in the highest and warmest terms. And it must never be forgotten that these infamous wretches had during the last six months of their lives committed a thousand atrocities, each of which was amply sufficient to place them without the pale of a common humanity, that they had violated or caused to be violated in the most brutal manner our countrywomen who had fallen into their hands, and that a speedy death, such as they here received, was only regrettable as being but too slight—because too sudden—in expiation of their crimes.

"Actions comme celle-ci," says a French historian,* "entrainent avec elles un blâme presque certain. La nécessité a beau les expliquer, la logique a beau les présenter sous le jour le plus favorable. . . . . ."

There is always, both in and out of the profession of arms, a

* "La Révolte des Cipayes," par E. D. Forgues.

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large percentage left to stigmatize such an act as barbarous, and, when the brilliancy of its moral results begins in time to pale, to heap invective on invective upon the head of its chief actor.

The seizure of the King and Princes of Delhi took place on the 20th and 21st of September, and almost immediately after this, "Hodson's Horse" were to gather fresh laurels throughout the surrounding districts.

The head-quarters, under Hodson himself, proceeded to scour the country towards Farreednuggur and the south-west, and subsequently (as part of a force under Sir Thomas Seton that left Delhi on the 2nd of December) moved down in the direction of Allyghur, from whence they once more moved into the heart of the rebel districts.

On the 14th of December this force encountered an army of mutineers six miles from Khasgunge, at Gungaree, and the following extract of Sir T. Seton shows, as usual, that Hodson's newly-raised body of horse did good and valuable work:—

"The General will see by the list of casualties, that the newly-raised Regiment of Hodson's Horse was not backward, and rendered excellent service."

On the 17th of December, three days afterwards, this force, with which were the head-quarters and 160 sabres of "Hodson's Horse," was again in action at Puttialee, whence it marched back to Gungarree, and then, striking the Grand Trunk Road at Etah, proceeded rapidly in the direction of Mynpooree.

The column reached Thussowlee on the 26th of the month, and attacking the enemy next morning near the station of Mynpooree, completely routed him, taking six guns; having thus, in the space of five-and-twenty days, fought three actions, cleared the major part of the Doab, and captured five-and-twenty pieces of cannon.

Sir Thomas Seton's column reached Rewa on the 1st of January, 1858. Two days before this, however, occurred an exploit connected with the regiment which for exceptional daring and determination, can well bear comparison even with that of the seizure at Humayoon's Tomb, for, it being to the last extent desirable that communication should be opened between Sir Thomas Seton's column and the camp of the Commander-in-Chief (Sir Colin Campbell), Captain Hodson undertook to perform the perilous office.

To appreciate the hazard of this feat, it must be borne in mind that the distance to be traversed there and back, was no less than ninety-four miles, that the ride had, of necessity, to be undertaken with but one change of horses, that any delay must, for obvious reasons, result in certain destruction, and that the whole of the country adjoining the route literally swarmed with parties of rebel cavalry and infantry.

Nevertheless the service was admirably and successfully carried out, though, as will be seen, not without considerable loss and

danger. Accompanied by Lieutenant Macdowell and seventy men of the regiment, Captain Hodson started at six a.m, on the morning of the 30th of December, 1857, and after a rapid progress of fourteen miles, halted at a village, where he posted fifty sabres. Pushing on with the remaining twenty to Chubramow, he there left the rest of the party, and the two officers rode on, alone, to Goorsaigung, where they expected to find the camp of the Commander-in-Chief.

In this, however, they were disappointed, and the journey was then prolonged to Meera Sha-serai, where they eventually arrived in safety. But the return ride was not performed with such impunity, for as they approached Chubramow, they received intelligence that the detachment left there had been attacked and cut to pieces, and that a party of rebel cavalry were even then in the village awaiting their return. It required therefore no ordinary skill and precaution to pass unnoticed within such disagreeable proximity to the enemy, and it was only by the aid of a friendly warning received, and by subsequent hard riding, that they escaped the fate which had overtaken their men in the morning, and accomplished a task which filled the entire army with surprise and admiration.

On the 6th of January, 1858, the regimental head-quarters joined the army under Sir Colin Campbell at Futteghur, and on the 26th of that month, were again on the move under Brigadier Adrian Hope, for the purpose of attacking a body of rebels posted at Mhow Shumshabad, twelve miles from that cantonment.

The strength of the regiment present at the action which then ensued, was 3 European officers and 180 sabres, and although, as will be seen from the extract of dispatches which we shall presently quote, the corps acquitted itself even exceptionally well, the day must be looked upon as one of unequivocal disaster, foreshadowing—maybe—the greater one which was so shortly to ensue. When night closed in, it found the second-in-commandership vacant and both the commandant and attached officer *hors de combat* from wounds. At a very early period of the action, Lieutenant Macdowell, in an endeavour to turn the right flank of the enemy, was struck down and instantly killed by one of their round-shot. The death of this officer, at the early age of eight-and-twenty, can but be considered not only as a very severe loss to the regiment itself, but one to the Service at large.

Endued with the self-same gallant spirit as that which animated his distinguished leader, Lieutenant Macdowell appears to have displayed during the four eventful months in which he served with "Hodson's Horse," a very remarkable sympathy with, and aptitude for the particular description of service which the necessities of the time required. His letters, giving the accounts of their joint exploits, are notable for the soldierlike and stirring spirit which pervades them, not less than for their graphic tone, and in all

work of an unexceptionally adventurous nature, he presents himself to us not only as a valuable assistant to Hodson himself, but as an officer who, had his career so brilliantly begun been prolonged, would doubtless have taken a very high place amongst the "bright particular stars" of this branch of the Service.

The wounds sustained by Captain Hodson and Lieutenant Charles Gough were not of a very serious nature, although the former received two rather severe sabre-cuts on his sword-arm, and the latter—from his horse being shot under him—was at one time in great danger of being surrounded and cut down.

The dispatch to which we have already alluded, contains the following extract:—"Captain Hodson's Regiment was sent in support of the Horse Artillery, but the enemy's right flank was not gained without loss, Lieutenant Macdowell being struck down by a round-shot and mortally wounded. On reaching the right flank of the enemy, their cavalry was observed in considerable force to our front and left. Captain Hodson immediately advanced his regiment and, attacking them with his accustomed gallantry, completely routed them, many of their dead being left on the field. I regret to say that both Captain Hodson and Lieutenant Gough were wounded."

After the action of Shumshabad "Hodson's Horse" moved down in the direction of Cawnpore, which was reached early in February, 1858.

We have now to pass in review the services of the detachment of the regiment under Lieutenant Hugh Gough, which left Delhi on the 23rd of September, 1857, with a column under Brigadier Greathead. This force was no less than four times in action during the twelve days between the 27th of September and the 10th of October. These engagements consisted of Boolundshuhur (28th of September), Malagurh (29th of September), Allygurh (3rd of October), and Agra (10th of October), and it would appear from the following extract of dispatches that the conduct of the detachment was not only satisfactory, but brilliant.

Major Ouvry, 9th Lancers, says:—"The splendid conduct of the Irregular Cavalry merits the highest praise. They have killed two hundred of the enemy's Sowars during the action and towards its close. . . ."

On this occasion the enemy consisted of the mutineers and the Malagurh insurgents. Greathead's force moved off in the direction of Akburabad, from whence they proceeded rapidly to Agra, where, after a series of long forced marches, and joined by the garrison of that station, the column entirely routed a large body of the insurgent Sepoys, capturing the whole of their guns, baggage, and camp. From Agra the detachment—still with the same column—moved down the Grand Trunk Road towards Cawnpore, at which place it rejoined head-quarters.

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Crossing the Ganges in the early part of February, 1858, the

regiment now joined Sir James Outram's Force at the Alumbagh, and took part with the various events connected with the Oudh Campaign, including the assault made by the mutineers on the flank position of Jelallabad, near the capital. Detachments of the corps meanwhile were employed in other parts of the province, one of which was actively engaged at the storming of Meean Gunge with the force under Major-General Sir Hope Grant, while another composed of three troops under the command of Lieut. and Adjutant Hugh Gough, had previously to this left head-quarters at Furrachabad and taken part under the Commander-in-Chief in the Relief of Lucknow, returning subsequently to Cawnpore. During this command Lieutenant Hugh Gough, by his gallant conduct at the Alumbagh, on the 12th of November, secured his first recommendation for the decoration of the Victoria Cross, a recommendation that was further strengthened by his equally brilliant conduct on the 25th of February, 1858, near Jelallabad, where he had two horses shot under him, besides being severely wounded himself.

On the occasion of Sir Colin Campbell's final advance on Lucknow, on the 2nd of March, 1858, the regiment formed part of the Cavalry Division, and as such, occupied the interval between Jelallabad and the rest of the Army on the Dilkhoosha position. On the 11th their encampment was shifted into the vicinity of the Mohomed Bagh, and this date—the 11th of March, 1858—can never be forgotten as one of direst disaster to "Hodson's Horse," for it was the last on which the name of him who, during the last ten months, had led it with such matchless gallantry and daring, was ever to appear upon its rolls.

Major Hodson, whilst taking an active part in the assault of the Begum Motee, fell mortally wounded, and after great suffering died shortly after noon on the following day. And if to the Service at large this was a calamity which all felt keenly, which the Commander-in-Chief could himself only write of as concerning "the most brilliant soldier under his command," how much more heavily did it fall upon a regiment owing, not merely its existence, but more especially the whole of its extraordinary success, to the almost magical influence of the man whose loss it had now to mourn.

And that this influence was in no way fleeting or ephemeral is proved by a fact I have no hesitation in stating here, that although a period of over twenty years has now elapsed since the date of his death, the memory of their first leader is as fresh in the minds of the survivors of "Hodson's Horse" at this moment, as it was on the day after he fell.

A record such as this is no fit place, perhaps, for superfluous eulogy or panegyric, but it would surely be worse than incomplete if it failed to pause regretfully at a casualty which deprived the

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regiment, of whose services it treats, of one of the most splendid cavalry-officers of this or of any other age.

On the 12th of March, Major (now Sir Henry) Daly, C.B., was appointed Commandant, and the regiment continued to serve in and near Lucknow from the commencement of the siege until the 11th of April, when it was ordered, with a force under Sir Hope Grant, in the direction of Barree. Near this village, on the 14th of that month, they encountered and defeated an army of the rebels under the Fyzabad Moolvie. A detachment, again, was present at the affair at Sirsee on the 12th of May; the entire regiment subsequently marching with the Lucknow Field Force, which left Chirhut on the night of the 12th of June, and attacked the enemy next morning near the large village of Nawabgunge (Barabankee). During the action which ensued, "Hodson's Horse" was attacked in a very desperate manner by a large number of Ghazies—who were, however, eventually broken,—when, under the leadership of Major Sir W. Russel, and being reinforced by the 7th Hussars, they swept through them twice successfully, "killing every man."

In Major-General Sir Hope Grant's dispatch of the 17th of June, the regiment is mentioned in terms of warm commendation, whilst the names of Major Daly, Commandant, Lieutenant and Adjutant G. A. A. Baker, and Lieutenant C. Meecham (wounded) are also very favourably brought to notice.

One paragraph of the dispatch runs as follows, and is here thought deserving of record:—"I would now report the good and gallant conduct of Ressaldar Man Singh and Jemadar Hussain Ali, both of 'Hodson's Horse.' The former came to the assistance of Lieutenant Baker, and was severely wounded, the latter dismounted, and sword in hand, cut up some gunners who had remained with their guns."

The regiment on this occasion returned casualties to the amount of three troopers killed, and two European officers (Lieutenant C. Meecham severely, and the Honourable F. Fraser, slightly), two Native officers (Ressaldar Man Singh and Jemadar Hussain Ali), two non-commissioned officers, and seventeen troopers wounded. It also sustained a loss of thirty-three horses killed and wounded.

On the 8th of August a detachment was present at the affair of Hussungunge with the force under Colonel Evelegh.

Under orders from the Commander-in-Chief, dated the 26th of August, 1858, the original regiment of "Hodson's Horse," commanded at the time by Major Daly, C.B., was now formed into three corps of six troops, each of the usual strength, so that from this date, we have exclusively to consider the services of the 1st Regiment.

As has been already observed at the commencement of this paper, this corps consisted, on its re-formation, almost entirely of

men who had served from the beginning with "Hodson's Horse," and a few of whom are now serving in the 9th Bengal Cavalry.

The 1st Regiment of "Hodson's Horse,' remained during the greater part of 1858 attached to the Lucknow Field Force. It proceeded, under Sir Hope Grant, from Lucknow to Fyzabad in the latter part of August, 1858, and from thence a detachment, with a column under Brigadier A. Horsford, C.B., marched towards Sultanpore, near which an action took place on the 25th of the month.

Here, under a very heavy fire, the detachment swam the River Goomtee, upwards of 400 feet in width, a good many men and horses being shot down and drowned in the attempt.

Sir Hope Grant, in his dispatch, says:—"I have particularly to notice the great assistance rendered by the Punjab Rifles and Major Daly's Corps in swimming across the artillery and 7th Hussars' horses."

Seventy sabres of the regiment were again present at a successful attack on the rebels on an island in the Gogra, near Bhumore Ghat, on the 18th of September. On this occasion they were led by Lieutenant (now Colonel) C. M. Macgregor, who was severely wounded whilst charging; over one-seventh of the men, likewise, being either killed or wounded. The detachment is reported in Major Hume's dispatch as having charged in this action in the steadiest manner, and also as having captured a brass 5-pounder, at the same time cutting down the gunners.

Lieutenant Mitford, with eighty sabres of the regiment, was present at the affair near Chiriabagh, and although acting in very broken ground and against greatly superior numbers, the detachment succeeded in cutting up about thirty or forty of the enemy.

About the 8th of October, a portion of the regiment attached to a field-force under Brigadier Chute, was present at the action of Sundeela where, together with a few Police Cavalry, the men are mentioned as having done good service, some hundred and fifty mutineers being "accounted for" by them.

In the affair near Shintoor Oudh, again, the chief work of the day devolved on the Shupperthulka Contingent and "Hodson's Horse" (detachment), under Lieutenant Baltye, whilst another party under Lieutenant (now Colonel) Palliser, C.B., commanding the 10th Bengal Lancers, (late "2nd Hodson's Horse"), then forming part of Brigadier Horsford's column, took part in the action of Daoodpoor, on the 21st of October, against the Nusseerabad Brigade, numbering 4,000 men.

Other small detachments were engaged during this and the ensuing month at the skirmish near Behora, and the action near Judgespore, where, under Lieutenant Ward, they are mentioned as having behaved very well.

During the time in which these small parties of the regiment were taking an active part in the final subjugation of the pro-

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vince, the head-quarters had been ordered to march through Oudh to Fyzabad, on the Gogra, with a force under Major-General Sir Hope Grant. This station was reached on the 21st of November, 1858, and on the 25th of the month the column crossed the river, and at a distance of five miles from its banks, engaged the enemy under the Rajah of Gonda and Mehudie Hassein, near the village of Nawabgunge.

In this action the rebels were, as usual, utterly routed, with the loss of six guns. After crossing the Gogra, the regiment was again formed into detachments, one of which, under Colonel Christie, 80th Regiment, was ordered from Baraitch up the left bank of the Surgoo to Durinapore.

This column had a successful skirmish near the village of Bassingpore, on the 23rd of December, taking two guns in the pursuit.

Regimental head-quarters meanwhile took part in an affair at Baraitch under Brigadier Hagart, 7th Hussars, on the 4th of January, 1859, and also in the more serious engagement near Jerwah, under the Nepaul Hills on the 21st of the ensuing March, being at that time with a force under Brigadier Horsford. This officer, on learning the strength of the enemy with whom the 1st Seikhs, under Colonel Gordon, were engaged, hastened to the front with a wing of the regiment, the remainder—escorting four guns—following up with all possible speed.

These reinforcements arrived on the ground at a somewhat critical period, and after a little difficulty, succeeded in beating back the rebels, though not without considerable loss.

A very successful pursuit towards the Jerwah Pass, however, ensued, the regimental casualties on this occasion amounting to ten men killed and wounded.

It may indeed be stated that in almost all the affairs which took place between the 25th of November, 1858, and the close of the Campaign, some detachment of the regiment was present, but as the records of the corps are not sufficiently explicit to form a statement of these services, and as, in General Orders, there are a variety of desultory skirmishes and minor affairs of which no notice is taken, it is impossible to review the minutiæ of the Campaign in detail.

The final actions in which the regiment was engaged, prior to entering their first cantonment of Fyzabad, in June, 1859, were those of Lallpore, Commea, and Lota, in the Baraitch District.

Three months, however, had scarcely elapsed when the corps had once more to take the field. Again crossing the Gogra, it formed part of the column under Lieutenant-Colonel Brett, Her Majesty's 54th Regiment, but although frequently in close proximity to the enemy, this force was never actually engaged, and finally returned to Fyzabad on the 4th of January, 1860, from

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which date, therefore, this Record of the Services of the Regiment during the Indian Mutinies is closed.

Since then, although engaged in no such stirring scenes as those which I have endeavoured to describe, the regiment has served with credit throughout the length and breadth of Northern India, from the marshy frontiers of Bhootan to the fever-stricken valleys of the extreme north-west, and from the scorched and arid plains of Central India, to the bleak slopes of the Black Mountains; until now, when—exactly twenty years from its first formation—it has had the honour of being the first regiment of Bengal Cavalry ever disembarked on European soil at Malta.

Writing between Peace and War—with the sword but half-drawn, and only one foot in the stirrup,—he would be a bold man who would venture to forecast events, but on one point at least, the writer of this paper may be allowed to express his earnest and confident belief, and that is that, whenever and wherever ordered to repeat its history, "Hodson's Horse" will not be found wanting.

NOTES ON THE AUSTRIAN ENGINEERS AND PIONEERS.*

Originally, four Austrian infantry divisions were sent into Bosnia and Herzegovina, accompanied by five companies of engineers and two of pioneers.

From the notoriously bad condition of the roads, and the want of proper shelter for troops and war-matériel in Bosnia and Herzegovina, it had been anticipated that the scientific branch of the army would find full employment. But this anticipation fell very far short of the reality. The technical corps had to display an activity and enter upon an undertaking far greater than any that had presented itself in any previous campaign. The construction of the roads in Bosnia laughs to scorn all the rules upon which hitherto road-architecture has been based. And besides, the whole traffic was confined to a few main lines. Lastly, just at the commencement of the operations, a tropical rainfall had reduced the so-called communications to such a condition as to render them quite impassable for artillery and heavy transport waggons.

The Scientific Corps, which were divided amongst the divisions, and marched with the van of the Army had, of course, to make the roads passable at any cost. Holes had to be filled up, bridges and culverts in some cases repaired, in others entirely reconstructed, sections of way restored, narrow places widened, and side drains excavated.

The work performed by the Fourth Company of Engineers,

* The following notes on the work done by the technical branch of the Army of Occupation are compiled from an Austrian Military paper.

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under Captain Vessel, which was attached to the Sixth Division, will serve as an example. On the road between Brod and Serajevo, which is about 150 English miles in length, this company rebuilt no less than 18 bridges, repaired 31, and almost entirely reconstructed 130 culverts. In many places the road was nothing better than a swamp, it was rendered passable by laying down a solid covering of fascines, branches and twigs. Two swamps, one 190 yards, the other 44 yards in length were thus rendered practicable.

From Vranduk and Busovaca the road was in many places widened by blowing up the rock with dynamite; at numerous other dangerous points hand-rails and curb stones were erected.

But the Scientific Corps were not only called upon to carry out all the necessary road-making; many other important duties connected with the interior economy of the Army also fell to their share during the advance. The impossibility of pushing forward the provision columns at the right time, made it absolutely necessary to construct field ovens at the various halting places on the line of operations; thus at Brod on the Zverinac (only just across the frontier) the Fourth Engineer Company assisted in the construction of six sets of brick ovens, at Zepce they erected sixteen, and at Busovaca twenty iron field ovens. In Serajevo they built six sets of ovens without assistance.

Finally, after the occupation of Serajevo, the Scientific Corps had to erect defences on the neighbouring heights, these, though only of a temporary character, spread over a large extent of ground; and the Castle of Serajevo was strengthened, repaired and placed in a proper state of defence. The road repairs executed were perfectly sufficient to admit of the advance of the columns; but in consequence of the bad foundation of the highways, the numberless watercourses, some parallel, some at right angles by which they were intersected, and the enormous and unwonted traffic passing over them, these repairs could only last a few weeks. It was therefore decided to leave at every *etapen* station, either a whole or half of a section of the Tenth and Eleventh Engineer Companies, as "road-inspectors," chiefly in order to maintain the highways in a passable condition. As time went on, fresh demands were constantly made on the Scientific Corps, so that three further companies, namely the Fourteenth and Sixteenth of the 2nd Engineer Regiment and the Fourteenth Company of Pioneers, under the command of Major Gyurich of the Engineers were ordered to march into Bosnia, and to undertake the thorough reconstruction of the road from Brod to Serajevo. Since then, bad sections have been repaired, steep ascents converted into zigzags, retaining walls built up, and the main body of the road ballasted with gravel. It does not, however, suffice to repair the road from Brod to Serajevo; all roads in Bosnia must be entirely reconstructed in the same manner.

The Novi-Banjaluka section of railway, which is in a state of utter wreck has also to be restored by the field-railway detachments. But this is not all; at every place to be permanently occupied by the troops, barracks have to be built, some points protected by fortifications and block houses erected. The barracks and stores in Serajevo had to be chiefly considered. The buildings inhabited by the troops needed a thorough cleansing and many repairs. Partitions were erected to separate cavalry from infantry, officers from men, and the latter from their horses. Then barracks and sheds for the artillery, transport and cooking utensils were built from the materials nearest to hand, (sun dried bricks), not according to the usual rules of architecture; but for the sake of convenience in Bosnian fashion.

All the roads leading from Serajevo to the surrounding fortifications were partially completed. Finally the road to Mokri, which is for the most part made on very rocky ground and which had hitherto been quite impassable, was repaired so as to admit at least of light carriage and cart traffic. *Etapen* stations were erected at many points adjacent to the line of march, and temporary hospitals built in them, and made safe against a dash from guerillas, by the use and repair of the old fortifications.

It is of course very evident that this enormous mass of work required the most careful handling on the part of the officers in charge, in order to use their men to the best advantage. And in fact the Chief Engineer of the 13th Army Corps, Lieut.-Colonel Nemetschek, to whom this work was confided, had almost to multiply himself and to be in every place, as it were, at the same time. His task was no light one. He had to survey roads, points for fortification, old defences, barracks and all kinds of buildings before the troops came up. Then he had to advance with his own corps, send out orders in every possible direction, and have the necessary sketches and plans drawn up and completed in his office. In order the better to carry this out, Lieut. Riegele; Capt. Bakalarz; Upper Lieut. Bock and Lieut. Krippner were assigned to him in addition to his own aide-de-camp as a staff. During the marches these officers were divided amongst the commanders of columns for the more important expeditions; the remainder of the time they had to assist their Chief, Lieut.-Colonel Nemetschek, in his labours.

The assistance rendered by advanced and isolated sections of the Scientific Corps was beyond all praise. Their work consisted in marching and building day and night, and when there was fighting to be done, they were ever at hand and ready. And it must be well remembered that the Engineers and Pioneers being always far ahead of the main body of the troops had to contend with enormous difficulties in the way of provisioning themselves. General Philippovic certainly ordered them, in consideration of their extraordinary exertions double *etapen* rations; but the provision columns

were hardly ever up where the Scientific Corps were working. And in that case they had not only to put up with the fatigue of forced marches and extreme labour, but also in addition to bear the pangs of hunger.

Thus are the Scientific Corps for their conduct in the Bosnian Campaign entitled to a conspicuous acknowledgment of those exertions which so materially conduced to the eventual success of a difficult undertaking.

Both officers and men displayed a most excellent spirit, and their qualities mental as well as physical leave nothing to be desired.

FRENCH WAR-SHIPS AT THE PARIS EXHIBITION.

It must be the conviction of every one familiar with the recent history of ship-construction and marine-engineering, that the show made at the Paris Exhibition in Class 67—*Navigation et Sauvetage*—is by no means representative or complete. This is specially true of the British Section, and it is to be the more regretted as we hold the first place in ship-building and engineering. After diligent study of the plan of the Exhibition one discovers the location of the out-building in which are placed the models of ships and naval appliances contributed by Great Britain. But after looking through the collection, the visitor may well pause to consider whether his trouble in reaching it has been repaid. Our great steamship companies—such as the Cunard, the White Star, and the Inman—exhibit well-finished models of some of their most successful ships; a few of the chief ship-building firms—such as Laird, the Palmer Company, and the Sunderland firms—show models of different classes of ships constructed by them; and there is a fair show of racing boats. But the majority of our eminent ship-builders are unrepresented, the Admiralty are not amongst the exhibitors, and the miscellaneous items completing the catalogue include patent anchors, collapsible boats, boat-lowering gear, &c., &c. There are no examples of structural details, no illustrations of our recent types of war-ships, and no indication of the probable changes that will result from the use of steel instead of iron. In short, while the collection may be creditable to individual exhibitors, it is as a whole most disappointing.

Passing along the Quay and underneath the *Pont d'Jéna* one enters the corresponding collection belonging to the French Section, which is much larger and, we are bound to add, more interesting. A considerable portion of the space is given up to the life-boats and other life-saving apparatus, diving-dresses, plans for raising sunken ships, and various inventions of a more or less doubtful character. But the most valuable part of the

show is that contributed by the Ministry of Marine and the *Société des Forges et Chantiers*. It is most surprising to one who remembers the Exhibition of 1867, and the policy of secrecy in naval matters which found favour under the Empire, to discover that the French Admiralty have here published to the world all important particulars of their most recent and improved war-ships, armoured and unarmoured. Not content with sending models showing the details of armour and armament, the authorities have published a descriptive pamphlet containing particulars of the engine-power, speed, sail-spread, distribution of weights, dimensions and other characteristic features; and copies of this pamphlet are freely accessible to any visitor. From this source, which is beyond suspicion, one obtains a better acquaintance with the intentions and hopes of the French designers than is otherwise possible; and more exact knowledge of the types of ships now under construction than has hitherto been published. Furthermore, there are exhibited projects for new ships by officers of that accomplished corps, the *Génie Maritime*, upon which devolves the work of designing and constructing all the vessels for the Navy; and many other evidences of their skill in scientific matters relating to the behaviour or propulsion of ships. The collection of the *Forges et Chantiers* Company is not much inferior in interest to that of the Ministry of Marine. This extensive and capable Society has large establishments at La Seyne on the Mediterranean, and at Havre on the northern coast. It is the largest ship-building firm in France, and a worthy rival of our first-rate establishments, with which it competes for the construction of war-ships for all countries. Italy, Turkey, Brazil, and many other countries have been assisted in their naval armaments by this Society, and as a proof of its capacity, we may draw attention to the fact that the largest ironclad ship yet laid down for the French Navy is now on the stocks at La Seyne. Besides war-ships, the Society exhibits models of all classes of merchant ships; and it is no longer common for French ship-owners to turn to the Clyde, the Mersey or the Tyne for their new vessels. One or two of the French steam-ship companies show drawings of their vessels, and give particulars of their trials, but while this portion of the exhibit is very creditable, it does not equal the corresponding part in the British Section.

No other countries contribute a separate collection of naval models, although, scattered about in the various courts, one not unfrequently comes upon a few interesting models or drawings of ships and boats. Some of these are of the most primitive character. There are Russian and Spanish boats, each hewn out of a single log of timber; Chinese junks, Malayan proas, sailing-ships of all classes, river-steamers built for service on the Danube, and others which need not be mentioned. Comparatively little

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interest attaches, however, to this miscellaneous and scattered exhibit; having mentioned it, we revert to the very interesting show in the French Section, which deserves a more extended notice. Ever since the time of Louis XIV. the French have held, and deservedly held, a high place as scientific ship-builders. Down to the close of the great war, their ships were superior in form and speed to those built in England; and in the changes consequent upon the introduction of steam propulsion, and armour plating, French naval architects have fully maintained their reputation. We may hope, therefore, to learn much from a study of their works, especially as they favour plans which, in many respects, differ widely from those used in English ships. French designers, it is true, have learnt much from us of late years, but they have not been mere copyists. In some features their ships stand alone; and the most important differences from our practice occur in connection with the armaments. This can be best illustrated by means of an actual ship; let us take their new ironclad, the 'Admiral Duperré, as an example.

This is the largest ship yet constructed in France, she is 320 feet long, nearly 66 feet broad, draws about 25 feet 9 inches of water, and has a total weight of over 10,400 tons. Throughout the region of the water-line, from stem to stern, she is protected by an armour-belt about 8 feet broad, reaching about 4 feet above water. The greatest thickness of armour on the belt is 22 inches, at the extremities this is reduced to 12 inches. At the upper edge of the armour-belt is a deck plated with iron 2¼ inches thick. The sides of the ship above the belt are unarmoured. About 6 feet above the belt-deck is the main-deck, on the midship part of which are carried fourteen 5½-inch guns, not armour piercing but very effective against unarmoured vessels. These guns are 12½ feet above water, and they are covered by a continuous upper deck. Only *four* armour piercing guns are to be carried, each of them having a calibre of 13½ inches, their height above water is over 27 feet. Each gun is mounted on a turntable, within a fixed armour-plated tower, and is fired *en barbette*, the wall of the tower being high enough only to protect the gun-carriage and slide. The thickness of the armour appears to be 12 inches on the towers, and iron is the material employed. No attempt is made to imitate the "disappearing" principle carried out in our 'Temeraire,' by which the gun is lowered under shelter of the armoured wall before it is loaded, and only exposed at the instant of firing. The French appear contented to let the gun take care of itself; and they accept the exposure of the gun crew when loading, although being breech-loaders the guns give more shelter to the men than muzzle-loaders would give. Two of these four towers are built upon the sides of the upper deck, just abaft the foremast, and the guns on them deliver their fire from right ahead to right astern. A third tower is placed between the main and mizen-masts, and

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the fourth abaft the mizen-mast; both of these are at the centre-line of the upper deck, and the guns can be fought on either side. The after gun sweeps completely round over the stern. The passage of the gun crew and of ammunition into the barbette towers appears to be obtained by means of armoured trunks extending from the upper to the belt deck.

The ship is to be propelled by twin-screws, driven by engines capable, under pressure, of working up to 8000 horse-power, which should secure a speed of at least 14 knots per hour. She is also intended to be furnished with full "ship-rig" on three masts. the sail area reaching about 26,000 square feet. So far as structural arrangements are concerned she is built very much after the English model; but steel is extensively used instead of iron. A very efficient system of subdivision is provided, nearly two hundred separate compartments being formed. She has a powerful ram-bow, and will doubtless be furnished with torpedoes. Altogether she is fairly entitled to rank as a "first-rate." Begun in December, 1876, it is hoped to complete her early in the year 1880, but this is less than the time ordinarily occupied in building such a large and complicated vessel. The 'Inflexible,' of the Royal Navy, for example, was begun in 1873, but is still incomplete; and the French 'Redoutable,' begun in 1872, is not yet complete. We may reasonably anticipate therefore that at least two or three years will elapse before the 'Admiral Duperré enters on active service.

Comparing her with our largest and most powerful ironclad, the 'Inflexible,' we find that the latter is about the same length, 9 feet broader, of much shallower draught, and about 1000 tons greater weight. The English ship has 24 inches for her maximum thickness of armour, has the vertical armour disposed on a "central citadel," and depends for the protection of her ends upon the 3-inch armoured deck, which is situated about 6 feet under water. Her armament consists of four 80 ton guns, of about 16 to 17 inches calibre, carried on two revolving turrets, which will be protected by armour 17 or 18 inches thick. The height of these guns above water will be only about half as great as those in the barbette towers of the 'Admiral Duperré;' but, on the other hand, the guns and their crews are protected by strong armour. As to horse-power and speed the 'Inflexible' will probably about equal her rival. She is to have only a very light jury rig on two masts. Her turret guns sweep all round the horizon, and she has only a few very light guns in addition. Without pushing the comparison to extremes, it may be safely said that the 'Inflexible' is as much stronger as the 'Admiral Duperré' in powers of offence and defence, as she ought to be in virtue of her greater weight, irrespective of any superior strength derivable from her different arrangements of protective armour.

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Apart from comparisons of absolute force, or efficiency as fight-

ing machines, it is well worth while to dwell on the contrast be ween the armaments of the two ships. The French favour the so-called "mixed" armament of light shell guns and heavy armour-piercing guns; they are also content to run the risks attending the *barbette* system, and to leave the heavy guns continually exposed. The last mentioned plan is highly estimated by many authorities, especially when very heavy guns are mounted; but the question arises whether the French have not applied the principle to guns of too small a weight to be capable of self-protection. In the models of earlier types exhibited, one can trace the gradual growth in favour of this barbette system. At first in the 'Ocean' class, designed about 1865, there was a central armoured battery on the main deck, armed with the heaviest guns fought at broadside ports; and upon the angles of this box battery four barbette towers were constructed, in which were placed armour-piercing guns of somewhat less calibre than those on the battery. In the 'Redoutable' of 1872, one sees the main-deck shortened and only containing four guns, while the upper-deck guns are more numerous and more exposed. Now in the 'Admiral Duperré' and the smaller vessel 'Duguesclin'—the types of modern first and second class armoured seagoing ships now building—there is no armoured battery on the main-deck, and all the armour-piercing guns are mounted *en barbette*, high above water, and with a commanding horizontal range of fire. These two features are of great value no doubt; but the risks to men and guns in close action are also very considerable. We are surprised to find that in adopting the *barbette* system the French have not associated it with the disappearing principle above described, and with mechanical loading. The moral effect of giving armoured protection to the gun crews must be considerable, since it minimises the risks of shell-fire, even if it does not keep out shot. Further, if the barbette system is to be used it certainly finds its best expression when there are mechanical appliances for loading, and only a few men are necessarily at the guns in action. In passing we may note that the French, who are so averse to owning a necessity for foreign help, have had the wisdom to become customers of Sir William Armstrong's firm for hydraulic machinery to work some of the broadside and turret guns mounted in recent ships.

The barbette system of mounting heavy guns so boldly embarked upon by the French, has been adopted to a limited extent by the Italians, the Germans, the Russians and the English. It is but right to acknowlege where the fair claim to priority lies in this matter, as the system will probably be used much more extensively hereafter. But the association of the few heavy armour-piercing guns, with a considerable number of light guns, is not a French idea, it has been repeatedly suggested in this country; and many proposed designs have embodied it, although none of our completed ships actually possess mixed armaments. We see much to commend in such armaments.

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A large number of light guns enables an iron-clad to attack with advantage unarmoured vessels, upon which the fire of her heavy guns would be thrown away; it constitutes an important element in defence against attacks by torpedo-boats, and it forms an auxiliary to the heavy guns in any fight with an armoured ship, for while the light guns could not penetrate the armoured sides, they might sweep the decks and confuse the fire of the enemy's heavy guns. The comparatively few light guns carried by English iron-clads might therefore, we think, be increased with advantage.

The most powerful French ship afloat is the 'Redoutable,' now nearly completed. She is about 310 feet long, 64½ feet broad, and of nearly 8,700 tons displacement, or nearly the same size as our 'Hercules.' On the armour-belt there are 14-inch plates; on the central main-deck battery only 9½-inch plates, protecting four 11-inch guns. She is a powerful vessel no doubt, but no match for the English 'Devastation' or 'Thunderer' or 'Dreadnought.' In the 'Redoutable,' as in all the sea-going ships of the French navy of which models are shown, a considerable spread of sail is provided, about equal to that usually given to our rigged iron-clads. Bold in accepting novelties as the French frequently are, they are apparently very conservative as regards the rigging and sails. All our battle-ships with the thickest armour and heaviest guns, are mastless, or have only jury rigs which are easily removable in war-time. Perhaps the French also propose stripping their ships before going into action; but we are not told what views they entertain respecting the necessity or desirability of having little top-hamper which may be wrecked and foul the screws.

It is a notable fact that the French are following our lead in using twin-screws instead of single screws. The change began in the English navy about ten years ago, and has proved very beneficial in propulsive economy, as well as in security against total disablement. They persevere in the use of their special three-cylinder type of marine engine, and appear to obtain very good results from it. Two or three engines are erected in the Exhibition, but they require no special notice. For the French Navy a very large part of the engine-construction is done at the factory at Indret, which is a State establishment. Some engines are constructed by private firms, like Creusot or the *Forges et Chantiers*, from designs prepared by officers of the *Génie Maritime*. The English system, as is well known, differs widely from this. The Admiralty do not build any new engines for ships in their steam factories, which are wholly engaged in repairing work. Private firms do all the new work, with considerable latitude in arranging the details of designs; and there can be no question but that this plan has worked well, assisting to develop marine engineering, even if it has given rise to diverse types of engines.

In another prominent feature of construction the French

designers imitate our practice only to a very limited extent. Revolving turrets are to be seen only in the models of *garde-côtes* like the 'Tempête' or 'Tonnerre;' and not a single sea-going ship is thus armed. Broadside armaments, or guns mounted on revolving turntables within fixed towers, are preferred for sea-going ships. By means of hydraulic appliances the French are succeeding in working very heavy guns on the broadside; but we cannot avoid the conclusion that it is an error to prefer broadside fire to a turret armament when few and heavy guns are to be carried. The French coast-defence vessels are formidable enough, and are evidently based upon the 'Glatton' type of the Royal Navy. An armoured breastwork is built above the upper deck, and encloses the single turret, as well as the openings into the engine and boiler rooms, the air-shafts, &c. The 'Tonnerre' is one of the most powerful. She is 250 feet long, 58 feet broad, and weighs 5,500 tons; is protected by 12-inch armour, has a single turret containing two 12½-inch guns, and steams 14 knots per hour. Great prominence has been given to the construction of these vessels since the New Programme of the Fleet was framed in 1872.

Up to the present time, the thickest armour used on French ships are the 22-inch plates of the 'Admiral Duperré.' The 'Inflexible' has 24-inch armour, the Italian ships 'Duilio' and 'Dandolo' have 22-inch, and the 'Italia' and 'Lepanto' are to have even thicker armour on their citadels. It will be seen, however, by any one visiting the Exhibition, that the French designers have not been prevented from using thicker plates by any difficulties in obtaining them from the manufacturers. The firm of Marrel Frères, show an iron armour plate, 27½-inches thick, weighing 38 tons; and in the Creusot exhibit there is a monster steel armour plate 31½-inches thick, weighing about 65 tons. The thickest iron armour plates yet made in England are from 22 to 24 inches, weighing about 25 tons to 30 tons, but the Sheffield manufacturers would no doubt produce as heavy plates as the French if there was a demand for them. In fact, plates three feet thick have been promised, and with steel armour even thicker plates may be available, if the growth in thickness of armour should continue. No one can predict with certainty what the future will be. Steel armour promises to replace iron, and horizontal deck-armour, with cellular protection, will very possibly replace vertical armour. But it is evident that the decisions of the naval architect and artillerist must be governed by considerations independent of the present capabilities of steel and iron makers, since these are constantly being increased.

All ship-building countries owe a debt of gratitude to the French metallurgists for producing the *mild steel* or *ingot-iron*, which is now extensively used. Steel, as a material for ship-building, has long suffered from want of uniformity in quality,

and in that degree of ductility which is desirable in the bottom of a ship, to enable her to stand rough usage and grounding. Many vessels had been built of steel, especially those designed for light draught, or high speed, like the blockade-runners constructed during the American Civil War. About six years ago the French manufacturers began to produce a quality of steel much more uniform and certain than was formerly obtainable except at great cost, and associating in a higher degree strength with ductility. English manufacturers were not slow to follow this good example, and now mild steel, equal in all respects to that made in France, can be obtained of a large number of high class firms in this country. The Admiralty constructors have gone further than their French rivals, and the 'Iris' and 'Mercury,' swift despatch vessels, are wholly built of steel, whereas the French custom has hitherto generally been to use iron for the skin plating. Lloyds' Committee, whose rules so largely influence merchant ship-construction, have also recognised mild steel as a suitable material for ship-building purposes, several ships have been constructed and more will follow. By using steel instead of iron, about fifteen to twenty per cent less weight suffices, without any loss of strength; and this gain in carrying power is of the highest value during the service of a ship. The French steel makers are still pressing forward in improvements of the mode of manufacture, and in the grounds of the Exhibition may be seen some of the finest specimens of steel ever yet manufactured. The Creusot Works, the Terre Noire Company, and several others, show a variety and extent of manufactured steel which is surprising, and has not yet been equalled in England. In addition to plates, beams and angles, there are magnificent steel crank-shafts, gun-barrels, and other great masses of cast steel, which are destined to take places once occupied exclusively by iron forgings. The Creusot Works hammer the steel castings, in order to secure soundness and freedom from "blow-holes," in addition to which there are some special plans of annealing in oil to increase toughness and ductility. The Terre Noire Company, on the contrary, by a special process of manufacture, produce wonderfully strong and compact castings of steel, without any hammering. Nor do these two great companies stand alone; on all sides there are evidences of the substitution of steel for iron in structures and machines. This is a change which we shall do well to imitate in this country. In the process devised by Sir Joseph Whitworth for casting steel under great pressure, results are obtained which equal, if they do not surpass, those obtained by the French makers. But this compressed steel is probably dearer than that made in France, and if the latter is cheaper it is certain to be more generally used. It only remains to add that State aid in France has done much to develope the steel manufacture.

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The use of steel instead of iron for armour plates has been accepted by the Italians, after their extensive experiments made at Spezzia. In the Italian Section of the Exhibition there is an excellent model of the site of these important trials, showing the targets, the butts, and the pontoon with the 100-ton gun. The general conclusions reached seem to be as follows:—1. That steel armour offers a much greater resistance to penetration than iron. 2. That steel armour is much more liable to be cracked than iron, when struck by projectiles, this cracking being produced by guns of a much lighter description than would be required for penetration. Cracking under fire is, in short, the serious drawback hitherto encountered in the use of steel armour; and the experiments made by the Admiralty at Portsmouth fully confirm this view. The only plates which have stood heavy firing without serious cracking have iron backs, with steel fronts welded thereto. Sir Joseph Whitworth produced a target which gave the greatest proportionate resistance to penetration, but its arrangements appear to be scarcely applicable to ships without special modifications, which the inventive powers of its maker will doubtless supply. In fact, if it is true on the one side that we have not reached the limit in guns, it is equally true on the other that the limit of protection by armour has not been attained. Where is this contest to end?

Nor are there signs that ship-designers have yet exhausted their schemes for varying the modes of applying the protective materials. The French, as we have said, are concentrating their armour in a belt at the water-line region, and on dwarf towers for the *barbette* guns. They have not yet embarked on the central citadel plan originated in this country, and applied also in Italy and Germany. Horizontal armour on the models of French ships is almost limited to the "belt-deck," situated about four or five feet above water, and plating about 2¼ inches thick is largely used. But there are not wanting evidences that the French designers have been contemplating other methods of protection, and that during some years past. Drawings are exhibited, prepared three or four years ago, of new designs for ships of various classes, with an armoured deck placed several feet under water, and with cellular protection filling in the space from this deck up to one, five or six feet above water. This is, in fact, very much like the system said to be adopted by the Italians in their monster war-ships the 'Italia' and 'Lepanto.' We presume such plans are now held in reserve in France, but their exhibition proves that they have been seriously entertained, and that new paths of progress, or at least, new varieties of construction, are open, not requiring any advance in the iron or steel manufacture to assist in their realisation. In England such under-water decks and cellular protection were proposed long ago, in fact, during the sittings of the Committee on Designs for

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Ships of War, which took place in 1871, and Admirals Eliot and Ryder were then the chief supporters of the plan. No effect has yet been given to it in England; Italy so far stands alone.

Attention is naturally most attracted to the armoured ships of France, but the models exhibited show that the Ministry of Marine is careful to develope all classes of unarmoured vessels, from the swift cruiser class down to the tiny, but formidable, torpedo-boats. In the cruisers one sees unmistakable evidence of the influence of English ideas. The 'Tourville' and 'Duquesne,' except in their armaments, are close copies of our 'Inconstant' or 'Shah,' and, like them, built with iron hulls, wood sheathed and coppered. Their speeds on the measured mile are also nearly the same as those of their English predecessors. The 'Tourville' is about 310 feet long, 50 feet broad, and of 5,300 tons displacement; her speed on trial is said to have been nearly seventeen knots. Her guns are chiefly carried on the main deck, and fought at broadside ports. On the upper deck several guns are carried in projecting half-towers on the sides, and thus have a commanding horizontal range, but are very much exposed. In the second class of swift cruisers, illustrated by the 'Duguay-Trouin,' the guns are all carried in the open on the upper deck, fully exposed to musketry fire at close quarters. It is curious to note how this acceptance of exposure for the guns and gun-crews runs through all the French designs of recent date. In our corvettes and smaller classes of ships, carrying their guns on the upper deck, great pains are taken to protect the men and guns by high bulwarks, pierced by ports made as small as possible consistently with working and sighting the guns. This involves being content with a limited arc of training. The French carry fewer guns, but give to each gun a large arc of training. As their guns are breech-loaders, they are also enabled to give some protection to the guns and men, by means of a shield fixed at the fore end of the slide, and revolving with it. Muzzle-loaders, such as we use, could not be dealt with in this fashion.

For their corvettes and smaller unarmoured vessels, of moderate speed, the French still use wood hulls, and as they have considerable supplies of timber suitable for the purpose, this course is natural enough. For swift unarmoured cruisers, and for ironclads, iron or steel hulls are now the rule. In many of the ironclads now on service, of which models are exhibited, the hulls are of wood for the most part; but the upper works before and abaft the central battery are of iron, in order to reduce the risk of taking fire in action. Endeavours are made, also, to introduce water-tight subdivision into these vessels, but the result cannot be comparable with that obtained in well-divided iron ships. In comparing the English and French ironclad fleets, the

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fact should always be remembered, that the latter is for the most part *wood-built*, whereas the greater number of English ironclads are of *iron*. Great complaints are made in France of the cost of maintaining the wood hulls in thorough repair; and one does not wonder that this should happen. Composite ship-building, it would seem, has not yet been adopted in the French Navy, but in the Royal Navy it is now general for vessels of 2,000 tons weight and under. No wood ship has been laid down for the Royal Navy during the last three or four years, and we are not likely to witness a change of policy in this respect, since the use of composite ships has proved highly satisfactory, and our latest experience with wood ships was quite the contrary, many of them proving very short lived.

From the machines and models exhibited it would appear that the French are using steam-power to a very large extent, in the shape of auxiliary engines to drive the capstans, ventilate the ship, steer her, &c. They are also paying particular attention to the question of "forced draught" in their boilers, in order to obtain a greater development of power for a short time. In the English Service, steam-jets in the funnel are used to quicken combustion with very good results; and in the torpedo launches, the stoke hold, being enclosed, has air blown into it by a fan to feed the fires.

Torpedo armaments of all kinds seem to be receiving considerable attention in France. A large number of the swift torpedo boats have been bought in England; others have been built by the *Forges et Chantiers* Company. The English models have been conformed to very closely in these torpedo-boats, as well as in those which are being constructed in Russia, and of which so much was said when the prospect of war with England was being discussed. For smooth water service, or the defence of ports, such vessels may doubtless be of great value, but it seems doubtful if they can be applied with equal success as auxiliaries to a fleet in service at sea.

In conclusion it may be proper to remark that the French collection embraces a large number of drawings, models, &c., of yachts and pleasure boats contributed by the various yacht clubs, to the encouragement of which much attention has recently been directed. Here again English example has been powerful; for the French have not failed to see that this branch of the maritime power of a country is by no means unimportant. As a school for seamen, and as a means of encouraging nautical tastes and training in the wealthy classes yachting is of the greatest value. The auxiliary aid which the steamships of the French mercantile marine could render to the war fleet is also indicated in the collection by the models and drawings of such ships; but here, although much aid has been given by the State, the French resources cannot be compared with our own.

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We have neither space nor inclination to refer at any length to the various inventions and schemes displayed in the French section. Not one of them is of such a character as to be likely to exercise much influence upon ship construction; and many of them are chimerical. There is one plan, however, to which we understand effect is being given in an actual ship, and we therefore think it worth notice. M. Bazin proposes to fit huge hollow wheels on either side of the hull of a ship, and to make these contribute to the buoyancy and stability, while they will revolve as the ship advances. In fact it seems to be thought that the vessel will to some extent travel over instead of through the water when constructed in this fashion. We do not anticipate the realisation of these hopes on trial, but shall await with interest the completion of the first ship of the class now on the stocks at one of the Northern ports.

Our advice to every visitor to the Exhibition who takes an interest in naval matters would have been not to miss the French section in Class 67, but as this advice could not be given in time to be of any service, we have endeavoured briefly to indicate the characteristic features of the exhibit. In it there is much worth careful study, although there may not be much which seems worth imitation by English designers.

ROAD-ENGINES FOR MILITARY PURPOSES.

In a paper on this subject, a French contemporary* moots the question whether important advantages would not accrue from working army-transport more than at present by *mechanical* means. Might not the difficulties which now arise in the event of a mobilisation in procuring a sufficient number of draught and other horses at so short notice, and in foraging them when procured, be obviated by the employment of steam-motors such as now play so important a part in agricultural operations?

The application of road-locomotives to Military purposes has not been neglected in this country, as all who have witnessed the "steam-sappers" solemnly bringing up the rear of a "march-past" at Chatham will admit, but none the less, some of the facts adduced in the article in question appear deserving of more attention than they have yet received. Before going further, however, we may note the following particulars of the invention of the "steam-sapper," which are given on the authority of M. Louis Figuier, and may be new to many of our readers, as they are to ourselves.

"The idea of applying high pressure steam to terrestrial locomotion was first conceived by one Joseph Cugnot, who was born at

* "Journal des Sciences Militaires," September, 1878.

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Void, in Lorraine, on the 25th of September, 1725. He was brought up in Germany as an engineer, and subsequently entered the Dutch service in that capacity. A treatise on field-fortification and the invention of a new fusil, which was adopted by Marshal Saxe for his famous Uhlans, acquired for Cugnot a certain reputation, and encouraged by his successes, he settled at Brussels, and devoted himself to the construction of a traction-engine, which he called a *tard à vapeur*, for the transport of heavy ordnance, etc., on ordinary roads. In 1763 he came to Paris, and after many years' labour succeeded in constructing a machine, which was submitted to the consideration of the French artillerist, Gribeauval, in 1769. Trials conducted in the presence of the Minister of War and others showed that the machine was capable of travelling at a speed of 2½ to 3½ English miles per hour, on level ground, but for certain faulty arrangements which interrupted the proceedings. Cugnot's carriage was worked by a direct-acting steam-engine, consisting of two gun-metal cylinders placed vertically, a pipe communicating with the boiler providing for the admission of the steam into the cylinders, and its emission into the atmosphere at the end of the stroke. The boiler, in shape a flattened spheroid, was placed on the fore part of the carriage, with the furnace in a nearly concentric position underneath it. The metal work of the latter was jacketed with fire-clay to prevent loss by radiation. The carriage ran on three wheels, the motive power being applied to the fore-wheel. The alternate movements of the pistons of the cylinders were communicated by a rack and pinion movement to the axle of this wheel, which was provided with deeply grooved tires, to give a better bite. The fore-carriage was made to turn separately from the hind-carriage, on the plan of an ordinary waggon, so that the machine could turn corners as readily as though drawn by horses. No means were provided for carrying water to replace that consumed in steam; consequently, it was necessary not only to stop about every quarter of an hour to take in water, but also to wait until the latter was converted into steam of sufficient tension, a defect which alone was calculated to prevent any further application of what otherwise was a remarkable invention. The preliminary experiments leading to the supposition that the machine would be a success if tried on a sufficiently large scale, Cugnot received an order for another to take a load of eight to ten *milliers*, (four to five tons,) at an average speed of 1,800 *toises* (two English miles) per hour. In this machine the violence of the movement proved to be so great as to render it unmanageable, and it finished by running up against a bay of the Arsenal wall, which it threw down. In recognition of his labours, Cugnot was awarded a pension of 600 livres (£30) a year, which he enjoyed until the Revolution, when he took refuge in Brussels, and but for the kindness of a charitable lady, who supplied him with food, would have died of want. In 1801, at the suggestion of the First Consul

Cugnot's pension was increased to 1000 francs. Previously, on his return from Italy, Bonaparte had brought Cugnot's invention to the notice of the Institute, expressing his belief that it might be turned to useful account. A commission was appointed to report upon it, but Bonaparte's departure for Egypt prevented any further experiments being made. The original machine is still to be seen in the Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers."

The subsequent development of the invention in the hands of English engineers it is not necessary to repeat here, and we will now proceed to notice the attempts recently made in other armies than our own to turn the invention to account for military purposes. The details will be found in a paper by Major Schulz, of the Austrian Staff, in a recent number of *Mittheilungen uber Gegenstanden des Artillerie u. Genie-Wesens.*

Italy, which possesses comparatively few horses but magnificent roads, was amongst the first to enter seriously into the question of the employment of road-engines for military purposes. Three Aveling-Porter engines, of four, six and ten horse-power respectively, were procured for the purpose of experiment, and various trials were made with them, in 1873, at Verona, Turin, Castiglione and San Maurizio. Amongst others a 32 centimètre (12½ in.) gun weighing 38 tons was conveyed from Turin to the proof ranges at San Maurizio, over roads in some parts very bad, with inclines of 1 in 10, several bridges, culverts and lines of railway being crossed *en route.* An account of the performance was given in the pages of this Magazine for May, 1876, under the title, "A Big Gun on the March."* The experiments led to the purchase by the Italian Government of sixty-six road engines for army purposes. The experiments showed that engines of four horse-power were rather too small, without offering any compensating advantage, while those of ten horse-power were too heavy. The six horse-power engines appeared preferable, in respect alike of weight, speed, and ease in handling. In the San Maurizio experiment a Thomson road-engine of eight horse-power and an Aveling-Porter of six horse-power were tried together, but the working of the former was considered inferior. An engineer and stoker are told off to each engine, and if the train consists of more than two vehicles, a third man follows in rear.

In Italian towns and garrisons every precaution is taken to avoid accidents. The employment of road-engines in the day-time, in the streets and on frequented roads, is forbidden, and each engine is preceded at a distance of fifty yards by a couple of men, who give notice to approaching vehicles, and in the case of the horses being alarmed, the engine stops until they are past.

The results of the experiments in Italy with a road-engine of six horse-power, weighing about six tons, are stated as follows:—

* "Colburn's United Service Magazine," May, 1876, p. 93.

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1. On level ground the engine would draw nearly five times its own weight.

2. On good roads with gradients not exceeding 4 in 100, three to three and a half times its weight.

3. On gradients rising to 7 in 100, or 1 in 14, double its own weight.

4. On gradients rising from 7 in 100 or 10 in 100, or from 1 in 14 to 1 in 10, its own weight.

5. On gradients rising to 14 in 100, or 1 in 7, about two-fifths of its own weight.

The consumption of fuel per kilomètre (1050 yards) was estimated at two to seven pounds of wood, charcoal or turf, and one to three pounds of coal or coke per ton, varying, of course, with the road, etc. The consumption of water was three and a half to seven pints per ton, per kilomètre.

In France, the first trial of road-engines for military purposes on a large scale was made on the Champ de Mars, about the end of 1875. An Aveling-Porter engine of eight horse-power was attached to a train of twelve guns and seven ammunition waggons six empty and one full. The train measured 160 feet in length and weighed 32 tons; various manœuvres were executed by it in a perfectly satisfactory manner, at an average speed of four and a half English miles per hour. In consequence, the French Government ordered a certain number of road-engines on the above system; but a French firm having subsequently carried out a series of experiments with an engine of a different model, the French Authorities, we are told, have been unable to make up their minds as to which is best. The French road-engine is of twenty-five horse-power, but only six tons heavier than an Aveling-Porter engine of six horse-power. It is stated to be able with perfect ease to mount inclines of 12 in 100, with a load equal to its own weight, at a speed of eight kilomètres (four eight-tenths English miles) per hour, carrying with it a supply of water sufficient for three hours. With the example of the San Maurizio experiment in view, the additional weight of these engines would certainly appear a serious impediment to their use in the field.

In April 1876, experiments were also made in France with road-engines worked by compressed air instead of steam. The results were not considered satisfactory. Such engines, moroever, could only be used in the localities were fixed apparatus could be provided for supplying them with compressed air. According to the *Invalide Russe*, a series of experiments was also made in Russia during the summer of the last mentioned year, to test the suitability of road-engines for army purposes.

On the 25th of July, 1876, an Aveling-Porter road-engine made the journey from Krasnoe-Selo to Ropscha along the high road, and performed various manœuvres on the exercise-ground, crossing a field and ditch, describing numerous circles, lastly

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descending the somewhat scarped banks of Lake Dugersdorff, to take in water out of the lake. Ordinary vehicles would have found difficulty in following it, as the slope was 1 in 6.

On the 27th of July another experiment was made to try the working of the same engine, which weighed nine and a half tons, over soft wet roads. A ploughed field soaked by rain, and said to be one of the wettest in the neighbourhood, was chosen for trial. The field was traversed slowly and heavily, but without any extraordinary difficulty, although the wheels of the engine and the vehicles it was drawing sank twelve inches in the wet ground. The speed was about one English mile the hour. The return was along a slippery waggon track running along a ravine, and very sideling, so that the engine was constantly sliding, and on more than one occasion was nearly in the ditch. The journey was, however, safely accomplished.

In a third experiment the engine was attached to a train formed of the guns and ammunition cars of two 9-pounder batteries. The convoy, which was of considerable length, executed a series of evolutions on the exercise ground, with the men seated on the cars. In changes of direction, the three foremost vehicles followed in the track of the engine, the remaining guns and cars a half pace over the preceding. Afterwards the train was made to descend a stiffish slope, but was stopped by an accident to the foremost gun, which might have been avoided altogether by the use of brakes. Still, the fact of the engine being able to pull up with so large a train behind it, in addition to its own weight, on a steep descent, was proof sufficient of its manœuvring capabilities.

A height was then gained by employing the locomotive as a hauling engine. The engine was first sent up alone; then one end of a rope, the other end of which was passed round the driving wheel of the engine, was made fast to the end gun of the train, and the whole train drawn bodily to the crest of the eminence. On the 31st of July, the same engine with a waggon containing water and fuel, was despatched from Krasnoe-Selo to the camp at Ust-Ischora. A stage of twenty-one English miles to Kolpino was performed in four hours forty minutes, *i.e.*, at an average speed of rather more than four miles an hour. A road-engine constructed by Messrs. Fowler was also despatched the same day from Krasnoe-Selo to Ust-Ischora, which travelled part of the way by a different route, and accomplished the distance of twenty-three miles in eight hours and a half, including a halt of one hour and a half. The last mentioned machine weighed eleven tons, and required two hours to get up steam, whereas the half that time was found to suffice for the Aveling-Porter engine.

Both engines crossed a wooden bridge resting on iron piles, without difficulty, but the heavier Fowler engine was unable to cross one of three other wooden bridges in the Ust-Ischora road. The

bridge in question crosses a stream, which is dry in summer, and the banks of which are scarped and covered with bush the height of a man. Messrs. Fowler's representative not wishing to wait until the bridge was repaired drove his engine straight down into the stream and up the other side, after simply sloping off banks; thereby demonstrating that road-engines are capable of passing wherever ordinary vehicles can pass, although their extra weight, of course, is a source of special difficulties.

On arriving in camp at Ust-Ischora, the Aveling-Porter engine was directed along an execrable track to the Engineer Park and thence sent on to the first parallel, over broken ground covered with brush-wood, to ascertain whether it would be possible to bring up the siege guns to the batteries in front by means of road-engines. All who witnessed the experiment were unanimous in pronouncing the problem solved. Two batteries drawn by road-engines were also manœuvred in camp before the Czar, all the evolutions being performed without hitch or difficulty. On the breaking up of the camp, the two road-engines were employed in carrying the guns, platforms and other materials of the siege batteries from the Engineer Park to the Artillery Department. In the course of twenty-four hours the Aveling-Porter engine removed two 24-pounder siege guns with their carriages and platforms, and two cast-steel 40-pounder guns together with their limbers and all other accessories. The 40-pounder guns were taken direct from the platforms. The locomotive was brought up within a short distance of the rear of the battery and the guns attached to it, and drawn to their destination over a very bad road, where in soft places the narrow wheels of the guns frequently sunk up to the naves. At the same time the Fowler engine was employed in like manner, and amongst others drew three ammunition waggons at once, which to avoid risk of explosion were attached to the extremity of an iron wire prolonge 10 feet long.

When this work had been completed, the engines returned to St. Petersburg, and the opportunity was taken of heating the Aveling-Porter engine with wood alone. It was found that the fire could be kept up for the space of three hours with about 70 cubic feet of wood, an important fact, as it may not always be possible to obtain fresh supplies of coal or cake.

At St. Petersburg the engines were used on the occasion of a change of quarters between the batteries of artillery in removing the baggage. On the 13th of August, a train of ten vehicles carrying altogether 25 tons, was conveyed by the Aveling-Porter engine from St. Petersburg to Strelni, 16 English miles distant, in five hours twenty minutes, and the next day a train of fifteen vehicles weighing over 30 tons, was brought back to St. Petersburg in five hours forty-three minutes. In these two journeys the locomotives travelled at an average speed of 3 to 3½ English miles per hour over the macadamized portion of the road, and at the rate of 1½ to 2 miles an hour over a portion about 4 miles in length,

which is paved and greatly increased the difficulties of traction. On this occasion the Fowler and Aveling-Porter engines were nearly equal in their results.

The results of the Russian trials led to the following conclusions :—

1. That the manageability of the Aveling-Porter engine leaves nothing to be desired ; that it can be turned in a road 40 feet wide, that is to say only two paces wider than the length of the engine itself.

2. That with a light load (4 to 5 tons) this locomotive will travel at the rate of 4½ English miles an hour, the water in the tender being sufficient for two and a-half hours' consumption or to carry the engine over a distance of 11¼ miles.

3. That on good roads it will draw a load equal to five times its own weight, and that with a load of about half the same, it can keep up a speed of 3 to 3½ miles per hour.

4. That on bye-roads, the load ought not to exceed once and a-half the weight of the locomotive.

5. That these locomotives can ascend any gradient accessible to ordinary vehicles.

6. That the Aveling-Porter road-engine may by advantageously used for traction as a stationary engine.

In summing up the experience thus gained, we cannot do better than repeat the remarks of the French journal before referred to. But to realize their full weight, the difficulties in procuring and working, and the heavy losses attending the use of animal transport in the field, must be kept steadily in view, nor must it be forgotten that these difficulties have enormously increased of late years.

It has been shown that the employment of the road-engine offers great advantages in the transport of convoys, in regard both of speed and weight. On good roads one such engine will draw ten 4-horse waggons, on inferior roads six. Such engines will travel over any road, on ice, snow or sand, and if properly driven can be taken almost anywhere. In fortresses they allow armaments and disarmaments to be effected with great rapidity—a consideration of great moment when it becomes necessary to transport a heavy weight of guns and stores to or from outlying forts distant perhaps a couple of miles or more from the body of the place.

In sieges they facilitate the transport of heavy ordnance, ammunition and stores from the nearest railway terminus to the approaches. The enormous weights thus requiring transport are well known. With road-engines the loading, off-loading and carriage would be greatly facilitated, and the necessity of laying branch lines from the termini to the several parks would probably be avoided. The crane carried by each engine greatly facilitates the loading, and off-loading of vehicles at railway stations, arsenals, &c. Moreover, the engines

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can be employed for stationary purposes, and utilized in the execution of all kinds of mechanical operations.

A mode of employing them hitherto overlooked is in the transport of field-bakeries, which could thus be effected much more easily than with horses. Horses will scarcely do 25 English miles in a day; a road-engine, on the other hand, will travel for sixteen out of the twenty-four, and as on good roads, it can draw a train of ten four-horse waggons, corresponding to a load of 20 tons, at an average speed of 3 to 4 English miles per hour, a field-bakery complete could be transported to a distance of 50 to 60 miles in a single day. It will easily be understood that in such cases it is desirable to make as long a journey as possible at once, and then to remain as long as possible before moving again, so as to avoid the loss of time entailed by frequent moves and halts. Whilst the ovens are in work, the road-engine, not needing rest like horses, can be employed in bringing up wood and flour, or in carrying the bread to the commissariat magazines. In a word, road-engines can be used wherever draught-horses can be employed, except within the radius of operations of the first line of an army in movement.

The advantages resulting from the employment of motors of the kind in question may be briefly summed up as follows:—

1. The transport of objects is effected twice as cheaply as with horses; the latter require to eat whether they are working or not, whereas in the latter case road-engines cost nothing.

2. The reduction in the number of draught-horses allows the number of soldiers in the train to be decreased too, with a concomitant reduction in the quantity of rations and forage to be provided and carried.

3. The transport columns are reduced in length to about one-third, a consideration not without importance as regards the enormous convoys of the present day.

4. It is thus easier to maintain order in a convoy.

5. Difficulties caused by want of forage, sickness amongst the horses, &c., are obviated. Each locomotive should carry a certain weight of spare fittings, by which any accident on the way can be repaired at once.

6. Convoys can be worked with despatch and precision by night as well as day, by trebling the *étapes*.

7. Roads are not all alike. Some are more used than others. In country districts especially, it is often necessary to traverse execrable roads, where relays of fresh horses are constantly required. With road-engines this is avoided, as the machine can put out extra effort without disproportionate exhaustion of stredgth.

Opposed to these advantages there appears to be but one serious drawback, the enormous consumption of fuel and water. On the engines themselves it is generally possible to carry water enough for 1½ hour and fuel for 6 hours. Water, too, is usually procurable when required. The boiler is fed by a feed-pump and hose through

which the water is drawn up and forced into the boiler. The source of the supply must not be more than 16 feet below the level of the roadway.

On long journeys, where there may be uncertainty of finding fuel and water, a certain number of waggons containing these requisites must form part of the convoy. The trees along the road may serve as fuel. Some sort of combustible is generally forthcoming, and the furnaces are constructed to burn any description of fuel. The price of these engines need not be an obstacle to their use under suitable circumstances. An Aveling-Porter road.engine complete costs about £1,000. One hundred such engines would require an outlay of £100,000. But the capital thus invested would not be wholly unproductive even in peace-time, as the engines could find useful employment in the arsenals and larger garrisons. They might even be let out for hire when not required, but this would probably prove bad policy, as it would entail the risk of the machines being in a bad state of repair whenever their services might be needed.

NOTES ON THE SHIPS AND NAVIGATION OF THE MODERNS. (*Continued.*)

By Lieut. C. R. Low, I.N., F.R.G.S.

On the 10th of August Albuquerque proceeded to Calayatt (Kalhat), between Ras el Had and Soor, and Curiarte (or Keriyat), situated near a cape of the same name, a little south of Muscat, which he took by assault, capturing twenty-five guns, and burnt the town and thirty-eight vessels. Four days later he arrived off Muscat,* which he also captured after some severe fighting; having burnt the city and thirty-four vessels, he embarked much

* Muscat was in possession of the Portuguese from A.D. 1508 to 1651, when they were expelled from all their possessions in Arabia by a simultaneous revolt of the Arabs. They fortified the place strongly, and built the forts Jillali and Marani; probably the others also are, in part at least, of Portuguese origin. In a Portuguese inscription over the inner gate of Marani is the date 1588, and in an old wooden gate at the custom-house, is cut "Anno 1624." Their expulsion from Muscat was effected by the Imam Sultan-ben Seif, about A.D. 1651-52, but only through the treachery of a Banyan, Narootem by name, who was treasurer and general agent to the Portuguese, and whose daughter the commandant, Pereira, foolishly insisted on marrying. The crafty Banyan obtained his consent that the marriage should be postponed for a year, then he advised the commandant to clear out the water-tanks, to have all the powder restored, by being pounded anew, and the old supplies of wheat to be removed, to make way for new. The stratagem succeeded, and whilst the Portuguese were unprepared and lulled into fancied security, Narootem secretly communicated with the ruler of Ohman, Sultan-ben-Seif, advising him to attack the place on the following Sunday. The Arabs came on that day, surprised and slew the Portuguese, and recovered their town. The same Imam, fired with his successes against the Portuguese, attacked Diu and Damaun, carrying off an immense booty. (See Hakluyt Society's "Imams and Seyyids of Oman."

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spoil and sailed from Muscat. So great was the terror of his name, that on the way he received the submission of the large town of Sohar (in lat. 24° 22′ N., long. 56° 46′ E.), where there was a strong fort having two towers, and captured after severe fighting, another town called Orfacao, described as a large one, which was also burnt. Having rounded Ras Mussenden, Albuquerque arrived at Ormuz. He says in his Commentaries, which are derived from his dispatches to King Emanuel: "The King detained all the ships in port, and added a force of sixty great vessels, having many soldiers and much artillery. Among them was one belonging to the King of Cambaya, called the 'Meri,' of 1,000 tons, with many men and guns, and another of 600 tons; and besides these ships, there were in the harbour 200 galleons, long ships with many oars, not very large, but armed with two large mortars in the prow: and many *terradas* (shore boats) full of small guns and men wearing armour. On shore, too, there were about 15,000 or 20,000 men, very brilliant with their arms, and many of them on horses."* After much parleying, Albuquerque attacked the fleet, which he routed, capturing the 'Meri' and several other ships by boarding. By the account, the slaughter was immense, for no quarter was given, and even the poor wretches swimming towards the shore, were cut off and despatched, so that "the sea was so tinged with blood, that it was a fearful thing to look at." We are further told that "one cabin-boy alone put to death eighty Moors," and "the gunners put many men to death." Albuquerque was wounded while seeking to land at the jetty, but his victory was nevertheless so complete, that Khojah Attah, the Minister of the King, Turan Shah, a boy of fifteen, sued for peace, and the young prince signed a treaty agreeing to pay an annual tribute of 15,000 xerafins to the King of Portugal, whose suzerainty he acknowledged, as well as 5,000 xerafins for the expenses of the fleet, and permission to build a fort, the foundations of which were laid on the 24th of October. The fleet was now refitted, but the fort was not completed, owing to the hostile attitude of the people of Ormuz, and of Khojah Attah, who was encouraged by the numerical weakness of the Portuguese, who only numbered 460 men, and by the Portuguese captains, three of whom deserted their chief and sailed for India. After some fighting at Ormuz and the neighbouring island of Queixome (Kishm), whither he went to take in water, Albuquerque, who was guilty of great barbarity in slaughtering men, women, and children alike, proceeded, in April, 1508, to Socotra, where he found the garrison suffering from the extremity of famine. In August he returned to Ormuz, but was not in sufficient strength to

* The description of the places captured by Albuquerque, and the resistance he met with, are doubtless much exaggerated. The Portuguese presumed upon the ignorance of their countrymen, as would appear from modern observation.

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enforce the treaty, and in December, 1508, arrived at Cananore, where he found the captains who had deserted him in high favour with the Viceroy Almeida. The latter had received his letters of recall by a squadron of three ships from Portugal, having served the prescribed period of three years, but he took advantage of his superior strength to refuse to yield up his authority. Desirous of revenging the death of his son, a gallant young officer who had fallen in action with the Guzerat and Egyptian Fleet, Almeida proceeded to the northward with nineteen sail. Having captured Dabal, he attacked and routed, with great slaughter, the combined fleet of the enemy, though the glory of the victory was dimmed by the massacre of all the prisoners. On his return to Cochin, Albuquerque again pressed Almeida to resign the government into his hands, but the latter refused, and even took the step of causing the successor appointed by his sovereign, to be seized and thrown into the fort of Cannanore; however, on the arrival of Ferdinand Contighi, Grand-Marshal of Portugal, who was sent out with fifteen ships and 3,000 men to put Albuquerque in possession of the Government, Almeida sailed for Europe. On the 1st of March, 1510, he was slain, together with many of his men, at Saldanha Bay, in a quarrel with the natives. Albuquerque now commenced his extraordinary career of conquest. With a fleet of thirty ships he attacked Calicut on the 2nd of January, and set fire to the town, but while plundering the palace, Contighi and 80 men were killed and 300 wounded, among the number being Albuquerque. As soon as he recovered after this repulse, Albuquerque proceeded against Goa with twenty-one ships, and having captured the city, entered it in state on the 17th of February, 1510. He placed as governor his nephew, Antonio de Naronha, who, however, was killed, and the place retaken by Kumal Khan, General of the King of Bejapoor, who attacked it with 60,000 men. Albuquerque appeared off the place with twenty-three ships and 5,000 fighting-men, and captured it with the loss of only fifty men, the enemy losing, it was said, 6,000. Albuquerque, who now harboured vast designs of conquest, on the 2nd of May, 1511, sailed from Cochin with nineteen ships and 1,400 men for Malacca, the prince of which, Mohamed by name, had in September, 1509, treacherously detained some seamen of the squadron commanded by Sequelha, a Portuguese officer, who had sailed for Cochin on the 19th of August to make discoveries, and had returned to Portugal. The prince surrendered his prisoners but refused compensation, upon which Albuquerque attacked the city by sea and land, and though it was said to be defended by 30,000 men, carried it by storm, capturing immense booty. Having built a fort here, and received and sent embassies to Siam and Pegu, he left Rodriguez Patalino in command, and sailed in the following year for Cochin,

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but off Sumatra encountered a terrible storm,* in which he lost the greater part of his fleet.

Albuquerque now resolved to undertake the long projected attack on Aden, a natural fortress, which his practised eye taught him would form an important link in the chain which extending from Brava to Malacca, would make Portugal the mistress of the East. Accordingly, on the 18th of February, 1513, he appeared before it with a fleet of twenty sail, having on board 2,500 men, of whom two-thirds were Portuguese. But he had underrated its strength, and the great Admiral had to retire discomfited from the walls of a place which yielded in 1839 to a British force of four ships and 1,400 men. Albuquerque now proceeded to the Red Sea, and after remaining for some time at the Island of Kamaran returned to India. Early in 1514 he sailed with twenty-two ships from Goa, for the last time, on his memorable expedition against Ormuz; on arriving before that place in March, he forced the young King, Turan Shah, to accede to his terms, the surrender of the citadel and all the artillery, with an acknowledgment of the supremacy of the crown of Portugal. While here Albuquerque received an embassy from Ismail, King of Persia, and having placed his relative, Pedro, in command, sailed for Goa, off which city he died, after a few days' illness, on the 16th of December, 1515, at the age of sixty-three. This remarkable man, whose chief fault was his boundless ambition, for he was indifferent to personal aggrandisement, and, says Machado, in his Bibliotheca Lusitana, "his desire was more for glory than wealth," had formed designs to divert the Nile into the Red Sea before it reached Egypt, so as to deprive the Egyptians of the trade, and to attack Mecca and plunder the tomb of Mohammed, with a small body of horse landed in the Persian Gulf—both rather chimerical designs. Shortly before his death his mortal enemy, Lopez Soarez, arrived from Portugal with thirteen ships, and it was said, that his supersession and the denial by the King, his master, of the title of Duke of Goa, which he had solicited, conduced to that event. He is said, on hearing of his supersession, to have exclaimed, after animadverting on the ingratitude of his King and countrymen:—"To the grave then, old man, for it is now high time: to the grave." Albuquerque, who deservedly earned the title of "Great," was not only a great conqueror and a prescient statesman, but a distinguished navigator and discoverer, and it is in this light that his achievements are deserving of especial notice in this work. He is eminent not only as the founder of Portuguese forts and settlements at Goa, Calicut, Ormuz, Cochin, Cannanore, Socotra

* It is related of Albuquerque, that his ship having struck on a rock, just as he was leaving her he saw a young man fall from one of the masts into the sea, upon which he sprang overboard and rescued him at the imminent risk of his own life.

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and Malacca, but as the first European to sail on the waters of the Red Sea, and to explore the coasts from Brava to Malacca. His personal appearance is thus described by Diojo Barbosa Machado, in his Bibliotheca Lusitana Historica:—"In stature he was ordinary, his face long and fresh-coloured, his nose aquiline, his aspect agreeable and made venerable by the white beard which reached down to his waist." Fifty-one years after his death his body was removed, in accordance with a request contained in his will, from Goa to Lisbon, where it was interred with great pomp on the 19th of May, 1566.

His successor, Soarez, quickly displayed his incompetence, for though he sailed to the Red Sea with a fleet of thirty-seven sail, he achieved no result, and returned to Goa with the loss of nearly one-third of his ships in a storm. The only memorable events in his viceroyalty were the visit for trading purposes of eight Portuguese ships to China, despatched in 1517 by Andrada, Governor of Malacca, and the agreement of the King of Ceylon, in the same year, to become tributary to Portugal and allow the construction of a fort at Colombo. The Portuguese retained possession of this island until the year 1657, when they were dispossessed by the Dutch, who had first begun to trade here in 1602, and who again were ousted by the British in 1796.* The Portuguese had established themselves in many other places since their arrival in the East. In 1508 Diego Lopez de Sequeira first visited Sumatra, and it was not until the year 1596 that the Dutch, who later became its masters, made their first appearance. In 1511 the Portuguese, under Francis Serrano and Diego d'Abreu, discovered the Moluccas,† or Spice Islands; they had been sent on a voyage of discovery, and the former penetrated as far as Ternate, and the latter visited the islands of Amboyna and Banda. A Portuguese writer, one Argensola, gives a history of the Moluccas, where his countrymen remained eight years. On his return voyage Serrano lost his life. The Dutch first began to trade with Ternate in 1599, and they assisted the native King to throw off the yoke of the Spaniards and Portuguese, the latter having in 1580 lost their independence, and become subject to Philip II., in which state they continued for sixty years, when the Duke of Braganza mounted the throne as John IV. The first fort that the Dutch built in Ternate was Terlucco, and the second Orange, which was captured by a British military and naval force in 1801. Portuguese settlements were also established at Tidor, Timor, and other islands, but they fell to the arms of the Dutch early in the seventeenth century, and two centuries later

* A Portuguese officer, Ribeyro by name, wrote the history of Ceylon in 1685 and presented it to the King of Portugal. The island, during the one hundred and fifty years of its occupancy, had sixteen captain-generals, the first being Pedro Lopez de Souza and the last Don Antonio d'Amaral y Meneses.

† The Portuguese have laid claim to discovering the Ladrone Islands, because Magellan, who first visited them in 1521, was heir countryman.

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were captured by the British, though all conquests in this part of the world were restored at the peace in 1814.

The Portuguese might have established a lucrative trade with Canton in 1517, but for the misconduct of the crews of six ships left at the mouth of the Bocca Tigris, and Pereira, the Envoy to the Court of China, who had proceeded to Canton with two ships under Andrada, was thrown into prison and died a miserable death. It was many years before the Chinese would suffer the Portuguese to trade with them at all, and at length permitted them to send annually some ships to the island of Sancian, near the coast of the province of Quantung, famous as the burial place of Francis Xavier, where they were allowed for a short time to erect tents for the disposal of merchandize.* In 1557 they performed a great service to the Chinese Government by destroying a pirate fleet, which making its headquarters at Macao, under a noted corsair, Tchangsi Lao, had besieged the city of Canton and blockaded the river.† The Portuguese now traded from Macao with neighbouring states, including Japan, though, in the year 1639 they were prohibited from trading with that country by edict of the Emperor, and when in the following year an embassy proceeded from Macao to Nagasaki, to plead for its resumption, its members to the number of sixty-one, including the Envoy, Louis Pacheco, who had served with honour as commander of the Portuguese armies in the East Indies, and was seventy-eight years of age, were executed, their ships were burnt, and the survivors, thirteen in number, sent back to Macao. In 1647, and again in 1685, they renewed their attempts to open a trade with Japan, but without success. Captain Alexander Hamilton, in his "New Account of the East Indies," where he remained from 1688—1718, mentions the Portuguese settlement at Ningpo, which he calls Limpoa, where they had about 1,000 families settled and were governed by their own laws, but in consequence of their gross misconduct which he describes, they were "banished Limpoa, and thus ended the most opulent colony at that time in the world." In 1525, the great island of Celebes, or Macassar, as it is variously called from the two principal kingdoms in the island, was discovered by Antonio Britto, and Garcias Henriquez,

* The most inveterate enemy the Portuguese had in the East were the Dutch, who shortly after the formation of their trading company in 1602, began to contest with them the trade with the Moluccas and China, and when the Chinese refused their demands for equal trading privileges with their rivals, the Dutch Governor-General of Batavia, Jan Pieter Roenen, in the year 1622, collected a fleet of fifteen vessels, and assisted by two English ships, attempted to dislodge the Portuguese from their settlement at Macao, but was beaten off with an acknowledged loss of 130 men. But it was not until many years after this that the Emperor of China permitted the Portuguese to fortify Macao with regular works.

† According to the account of P. Navaretto (referred to by Admiral Burney in his great work Vol. III. p. 39) the Portuguese, after being twice expelled from Ningpo, were permitted as an act of Imperial favour to settle at Macao.

who had been sent from the Moluccas to make discoveries, though other Portuguese writers say that Britto who had already earned notoriety by his having taken one of Magellan's ships a few years before, and murdered all the crew, did not go himself, but dispatched vessels when certain islands were sighted to which the name was given, and that Antonio Galvaom, Governor of the Moluccas, sent over two native Christians who baptized the princes and established relations with them. The Dutch eventually conquered the island of Celebes, and on the 18th November, 1667, concluded a treaty with the King, in the 6th Article of which it is stipulated "that they should banish the Portuguese from the kingdom, and exclude them from trade, as also the English, who are great mischief makers, and the authors of the present war."

In 1527, the Portuguese under Captain Edward Correl made a cursory examination of the coasts of Borneo, but Magellan's expedition had landed near the city of Borneo in 1521. De Barros says that Don Gorge de Meneses who had left Malacca on the 22nd August, 1526, with two ships and sixty men for the Moluccas, instead of proceeding by the south of this island and of Celebes, the course always pursued, went round the north of Borneo, and passing the north end of Gillolo, and then going to the south, came to land two hundred leagues distant from the Moluccas, inhabited by people called Papuas, (which Argensola says means "black" in the native language). Meneses arrived at Ternate in May, 1527, having thus made the first discovery of New Guinea. Galvaom also mentions that Meneses about this time sent two ships under Rocha with Gomez de Sequeira as pilot, and they discovered some islands in lat. 9° or 10°, which Captain Burney, in his "History of the Discoveries in the South Seas," thinks were part of the group now known as the Pelew Islands. According to Galvano, (called by Burney, Galvaom), governor of the Moluccas, who has written an account of the discoveries made by the Spaniards and Portuguese, the island of New Guinea was discovered in March, 1529, by Alvarez de Saavedra, as he was returning to the Spanish possessions in America from a voyage of discovery, and he called it the "Isle de los Pintados, or Island of Painted People."* The first European to visit the Philippine Islands was Magellan in his memorable voyage of circumnavigation in 1521, but this group was not settled by the Spaniards until 1565, when Michael Lopez de Legaspi, a native of Mexico, colonised them under a commission from Philip II., after whom they were named. In 1558, however, we find that Galvaom (or Galvano) the able Governor of the Moluccas, under whose auspices so many important discoveries were made, sent Francis de Castro to the

* See Harris's "Voyages" for the account of the discoveries of the Portuguese in these seas.

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island of Mindanao, with which a considerable trade was established.

The first notice we have of Japan being visited by Europeans* since the time of Marco Polo, was in the year 1542, when Ferdinand Pinto, who himself gives an account of his visit, proceeded thither with two of his countrymen in a Chinese vessel from Macao. According to Galvaom, in the same year, Antonio de Mota and two other Portuguese seamen, deserting from the ship at Siam, embarked on board a junk bound to Liampo in China, but were driven by a storm to land in 32° N. Lat. which was one of the southern of the group. Two years later Alvarez Vaz, a Portuguese merchant, visited Japan, and persuaded one, Angero to accompany him to Goa, when he was baptized by Francis Xavier, the great "Apostle of the Indies," who in 1549 proceeded to Japan with his convert and two missionaries. Pinto accompanied Xavier in his proselytizing mission, and after the decease of Xavier, was sent thither for the third time in 1556, as ambassador from the Viceroy of the Indies. But the corruption and licentiousness of the Portuguese and the intrigues of the missionaries, so much at variance with the religion they professed, coupled with the representations of the Dutch, who had established a trade with these islands, that the object of their rivals was territorial acquisition, resulted as already stated in their total exclusion from the country in the year 1639, and in the subversion of Christianity, which had been largely adopted by princes and people. The Dutch and the English, who had established a factory at Firando, continued to trade with Japan, and the first of our countrymen to visit the country, in command of one of the East India Company's ships, was Captain Saris. After the capture of Malacca by Albuquerque from the King of Johore, it became the richest of their possessions after Goa and Ormuz, and was the seat of a bishop, the Cathedral Church of St. Paul being a fine edifice; in the town were also five other churches, a college for the Jesuits, and a seminary for the converts, the whole being encompassed with a strong stone wall strengthened with bastions, and having a numerous garrison. However, in 1605, the Dutch attacked and destroyed the Portuguese fleet, consisting of thirty-four sail, and four years later captured the place after a siege of six months. The Dutch always displayed the most bitter hatred of the Portuguese, and in 1605, and 1607, made two unsuccessful attempts to capture the island of Mozambique; even after the year 1640, when the crowns of Spain and Portugal were again separated, the Dutch prosecuted their designs, and though defeated in their attempts on Goa, in 1661 beat the Portuguese in two naval engagements, and two years later attacked their

* See Antonio Galvaom's "Tratado dos Descobrimentos," p. 94, and Kempfer's "History of Japan," book 4, Chap. 5. The latter says that, according to the Japanese, the first European ship seen on their coasts anchored at Ana opposite the island of Tsikok.

possessions on the Malabar Coast, including Cochin, where they destroyed all the cinnamon, which, after the loss of Ceylon, had been a staple article of commerce. On the other hand the Portuguese revenged themselves by driving out of Brazil, after a struggle of ten years, the subjects of the States-General, who had possessed themselves of that country.

The Portuguese power in the East, which rose so suddenly under the inspiring genius of Albuquerque, gradually declined after the death of that great man. His successor Soarez who, like Albuquerque, had failed in an attack upon Aden, was succeeded by James Lopez, who forced the King of Bantam to accept peace on his terms, but retreated from before Diu in February, 1521, though having forty sail under his command. A few months later he was succeeded by Edward de Meneses, who achieved successes in the island of Sumatra, and sent on a voyage of discovery and conquest to the eastward, Henriquez and Britto, who captured one of Magellan's ships and erected a fort in the island of Ternate.

In the year 1521, John III. succeeded his father Emanuel, the greatest of Portuguese princes, who had raised his country to the pinnacle of glory, and one of his first acts was to appoint as Viceroy the aged Vasco da Gama, who died within a few months of his arrival at Goa, when the Viceroyalty devolved on Henry de Meneses. After a brief tenure he died of an arrow wound in the year 1526, and was succeeded by Lopez de Sampayo, in whose time the Portuguese and Spaniards disputed regarding their rival claims to the Moluccas, the latter averring that Magellan was the discoverer in 1521 under the orders of the Emperor Charles V., and the Portuguese that these islands had been visited ten years before by Anthony Abreu who had been sent by Albuquerque to make discoveries, and was accompanied by Magellan. The people of Ternate sided with the Portuguese, and those of Tidor and Gillolo with the Spaniards, but ultimately, after much bloodshed, the Emperor yielded up his right of the Moluccas to the King of Portugal.* In 1527, Sampayo himself defeated the Guzerat fleet off Choul with great slaughter, and captured immense booty. Meantime, Nunho de Cunha arrived as Viceroy, his brother Simon being Admiral, and on the way out they captured Mombaza. At a later date De Cunha received the surrender of the strong island fortress of Diu, which was committted to the charge of Antonio de Silveira. Soleiman, the magnificent, the Sultan of Turkey, in an application from Bahadur Shah, Prince of Guzerat, who had sent emissaries with presents to Constantinople soliciting aid against the Portuguese, despatched a fleet and army, a large part of the expenses of which was provided by Suleiman Pacha, a

* According to Sir William Monson in his Naval Tracts, John III. of Portugal, lent his brother-in-law Charles 5,350,000 ducats when he went to Italy to be crowned Emperor, on condition that his possession of the Moluccas should be recognised till that money was repaid, which was never done.

successful Greek adventurer, who received the command. Accordingly Soleiman proceeded to Suez, and collected and equipped a fleet of seventy-two war vessels on board of which, besides sailors and slaves, of whom he provided 1,000, there were embarked 1,500 Janisaries of the Royal Guard, 2,000 Turkish regulars, and 500 Mamelukes well officered and provided. This formidable force left Suez in September, 1537, and sailing down the Red Sea, committed great excesses, and took Aden and hanged its ruler. Arriving on the coast of Hindostan, they were joined by eighty Guzerat ships and laid siege to Diu, but were repulsed after a gallant defence by the Portuguese Governor, Silveira, who received relief from Garcia de Norunha, the new Viceroy. The Pacha brought the greater portion of his fleet back to Suez, but falling into disgrace, poisoned himself, in order to escape from the executioner's hand. The Portuguese resolved to avenge themselves by attacking the Sultan's possessions in the Red Sea. On the death of Viceroy Norunha, the supreme command devolved on Estevan da Gama, second son of the great Vasco da Gama, a naval officer of distinction, and late Captain-General of Malacca. He fitted out a fleet, and among other officers to command it selected Joao de Castro, a clever mathematician, and one of the ablest navigators of the age, who became one of the most distinguished and upright viceroys the Portuguese ever had in India. Some idea may be formed of the power of the Portuguese at this period, though within half a century of their first landing in India, when it is said that the armament consisted of seventy-two sail, twelve of which were war ships of a large size, and the rest galleys, and on board 2,000 picked soldiers were embarked. The naval command was confided to Joao de Castro, who started with the full intention of noting down everything that might occur on the voyage, calculated to promote the science of navigation and the commercial interests of his country; and it is gratifying to add that a copy of this log-book now rests in the British Museum, among the Cottonian MSS.* This fleet left the

* The copy in the British Museum is a large quarto volume, consisting of sixty folios, originally numbered in red ink. It now only contains fifteen drawings or descriptive maps, the one of Aden having been torn out. The edges of the work are much burnt, no doubt during the calamitous fire which befel Sir R. Bruce Cotton's library in 1731, whereby the marginal notes were mostly destroyed, and the text in some places partially defaced. The maps were also severed in two at the foldings. The volume has, however, since been bound in calf with gilt lettering, and bears the Cottonian arms upon it. Each sheet has also been pasted upon a separate piece of paper, by which means the blank margins have been restored. A new enumeration of the folios has also been added, now amounting to ninety. The work is closely written, in a fair hand, but with numerous abreviations, and in the old orthography, which renders it rather difficult to decipher, and at the end, on a scroll are these words. *Gaspar Aloisius scribebat MDXIII.* The narrative is preceded by the dedication already mentioned in large letters, imitating the Roman character. The initials to descriptions and headings are in red ink, and the capitals occasionally flourished. The drawings are curious, and besides showing the configuration of the coast and surrounding hills, describe the aspect of the country, and mark the spots where camels, lions, horned cattle, and

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Goa anchorage on the 1st January, 1541, and proceeded up the coast for the double purpose of overawing the native chiefs opposed to the Portuguese, and crossing the Indian Ocean at its narrowest part, in consequence of which detour they did not reach the island of Socotra till the 13th. Having taken in water, they left on the 20th, and on the 27th appeared before Aden, of which place Castro furnishes an historical sketch, with a view of the coast and harbour. The following day they anchored at the mouth of the Straits of Babelmandeb, when the naval commander sounded the channels, establishing the position of the rocks and shoals as a guidance for the several captains. As soon as the fleet had passed Mocha, they steered for the opposite coast, and on the 8th February, anchored in front of the island of Dallaqua or Dhalac, of which Castro gives a short description. On the 11th the oared galleys had reached the island and port of Massowah, where next day they were joined by the heavy vessels and found a good harbour. Castro describes this spot as well as the coast and watering place of Arkeeko, remarking that according to a local tradition, in was in this port, Sheba, Queen of Ethiopia, embarked when she went to visit Solomon. Here he left the large vessels and proceeded up with the smaller ones, consisting of sixty-four row-galleys, three galliots, eight long-boats, and fifty-three pinnaces.* On the 18th the Portuguese left Massowah, and on the 23rd arrived at Souakim, which being one of the strongholds held by the Turks, the Viceroy landed a force and ordered it to be pillaged and burnt. The fleet did not leave Souakim till the 10th March, a delay which in the end proved fatal to the main object of their enterprise, as the garrison at Suez received timely notice of their approach, and besides adopting the precaution of dragging their galleys high up on the strand, in the interval obtained reinforcements of troops from Cairo and other places. On the 21st the Portuguese entered the harbour of Toro, where, Castro contends, Solomon had the vessels built which he periodically sent to Tharsis and Ophir. After driving the Turkish garrison out of this town, agreeably to his powers and the usage of the age, Viceroy de Gama conferred the honour of knighthood on several gentlemen at the foot of Mount Sinai.† The Portuguese left Toro on the 22nd, and on the 25th being near the isthmus of Suez, observed a large body of infantry

deer were seen. They also represent the Portuguese vessels as they appeared when at anchor and under sail. (See an account of this valuable MSS. in the Asiatic Journal, Vol. XLV.)

* The military and other details of this expedition, omitted by Castro, are supplied by Diego de Couto, who continued Barros' "Decadas da Asia," Lisbon, 1553, and also in the chronicle of John III., by Francisco de Andrada.

† Among them was the eldest son of Joao de Castro. Estivan de Gama died in Portugal, and was interred in the church of the Carmelite Convent at Vidigueira. On his tomb is inscribed an epitaph to this effect: "He who made knights at the foot of Mount Sinai, hither came to end his days."

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and cavalry exercising on a plain. While passing a point of land, defended by a bastion, the Turks fired at them, but, forcing the passage, they entered Suez harbour, and caught sight of the Ottoman fleet, nine war ships and four galleys, hauled high up on the beach, on the other side of the houses, and defended by redoubts recently constructed. As De Gama was about to land his force, 2,000 Turkish cavalry and infantry made their appearance from behind a hill, and seeing other preparations for a formidable defence, the Viceroy recalled the troops, and abandoned the enterprise. On the 29th April the Portuguese accordingly withdrew, and retracing their steps arrived at Goa on the 21st July after an absence of seven months and twenty-one days.

In 1545, Mahommed, the Guzerat King, again laid siege to Diu, which held out for many months until the arrival of the Viceroy John De Castro, who routed the enemy by sea and land with great slaughter. The Portuguese were supreme at sea from Guzerat to Cape Comorin, until the arrival on the scene of the Dutch and English. In a curious account of the East Indies in 1639 by one J. A. De Mandelsloe, he speaks of the formidable fleet the Portuguese possessed, even after their loss of Ormuz had inflicted a severe blow on their maritime supremacy. When he visited Goa in that year, he says the flag-ship called the 'Bon Jesus' carried sixty-four guns and six hundred men. But they declined as a military power, and the blow inflicted on them by the Mahrattas reduced them to a condition of impotency. In 1737 these fierce warriors captured Tanna and Tarapore, and two years later Bassein fell to their arms after a defence by De Pinto who was killed, and his successor De Souza Pereira, worthy of the best days of Portuguese chivalry. On the 27th September the remnant of the garrison was convoyed by a squadron of Company's ships from Bombay to Choul, and thence returned to Goa. *Finis Poloniæ!* Thus ended Portuguese supremacy in India, which from that day became the decrepid power we now see it, only living on sufferance, and an object of contempt even to the petty Native States adjoining its settlements, which are confined to Goa and the neighbouring territory, Diu and Damaun. In the last year of the sixteenth century the English East India Company was formed, but before that event three voyages of the first importance had been made to the Indies by those adventurous Englishmen, Drake, Cavendish, and Lancaster. In 1591 took place the first English Expedition to the East Indies for trading purposes. On the 10th April in that year three ships sailed from Plymouth. The 'Penelope,' Captain Raymond, the 'Royal Merchant,' Abraham Kendal, and the 'Edward Bonaventure,' James Lancaster, after whom the sound near Greenland was named.* On

* Two accounts of this Expedition have been written, the first by Hakluyt from Lieutenant Edward Barker, and the second by Henry Way. Both were published by Hakluyt and appear in the volume of the Hakluyt Society for 1877, edited by

1st August they reached Saldanha Bay, where the 'Royal Merchant' was sent home with the sick, and near Cape Corriertes, the two other ships parted company in a gale when the 'Penelope' was never heard of again. Lancaster proceeding on lost several men in a treacherous attack of the Natives on the East coast of Africa while trying to procure water, and thence sailing to Cape Comorin, which they rounded in May, 1592, visited the Nicobars and the coast of Malacca. At this time the crew was reduced to thirty-three persons, but they nevertheless succeeded in making some important captures of Portuguese vessels. Lancaster now sailed to Ceylon, but here the crew mutinied and insisted of returning round the Cape. In the following April they arrived at St. Helena, and thence proceeded to the West Indies. On the 20th November, 1593, while Lancaster, Barker, and seventeen men were on shore at Nuna, a small island between Puerto Rico and San Domingo, searching for provisions, the carpenter cut the ship's cable, and she drove to sea with five men and a boy. After twenty-nine days' stay here, they were taken on board by some French vessels, and went to San Domingo, whence on the 7th April, 1594, they took ship for Dieppe and landed at Rye on the 24th May. In the following October, Lancaster proceeded to sea with three ships and a galley, with two hundred and seventy-five men, and in a successful attack on the Portuguese settlements at Pernambuco, Edward Barker, his second in command and thirty-five men were killed. The expedition, of which an account is given by Hakluyt, returned to Blackwall in July, 1595. Four years later the report of Dr. Thorne, an English merchant residing at Seville, on the advantages of trade with India, and giving information including that obtained from Lancaster after his first voyage, led to the formation of the East India Company by some London merchants who subscribed £30,000, and four ships were purchased and fitted out. Queen Elizabeth gave her sanction on the 16th October, and on the 31st December the charter of incorporation was granted, conferring the exclusive privilege of trade to the East Indies for fifteen years, to the Earl of Cumberland and two hundred and eighteen knights, aldermen and merchants, by the name of "the Governor and Company of the Merchants of London trading unto the East Indies." Alderman Sir Thomas Smith was elected the first Governor, and with him were associated twenty-four directors.

As the ships of the East India Company made no discoveries, only a brief summary of their voyages is here necessary. The first expedition, which sailed from Woolwich on the 13th of February, 1600 or 1601, according to the present method of

Mr. Clements Markham. Richard Hakluyt it should here be noted completed his "Principal Navigations" in 1600, when he was appointed to the charge of the East India Company's historical and geographical documents which he held until his death in 1616. He was appointed Archdeacon of Westminster in 1603.

reckoning, consisted of the 'Red Dragon,' 600 tons, 202 men, Captain James Lancaster; 'Hector,' 300 tons, 108 men, Captain John Middleton; 'Ascension,' 260 tons, 82 men, Captain William Brand; 'Susan,' 240 tons, 88 men, Captain John Hayward; and the victualler 'Guest,' 130 tons, which was abandoned on the voyage. On the 9th of September the squadron reached Saldanha Bay, the losses by sickness being no less than 105 men. On the 1st of November the Cape was doubled, on the 9th of May, 1601, they arrived at the Nicobar Islands, and on the 6th of June they cast anchor at Acheen, on the north-west extremity of Sumatra. Captain Lancaster having made a treaty with the King, proceeded on a privateering cruise in the Straits of Malacca, and captured a Portuguese carrack of 900 tons, having a valuable cargo. As Sir William Monson says in his "Naval Tracts," (See "Churchill's Voyages," vol. iii., p. 231,) "Lancaster's employment was as well to take by violence, or to trade by sufferance." The 'Ascension' left Acheen for England with a cargo of cinnamon, pepper and cloves on the 9th of November, and Captain Lancaster, leaving the 'Susan' at Priaman with orders to proceed to England when she had completed her cargo, sailed for Bantam on the north-west extremity of Java. Having established a factory and friendly relations with the King, he sailed on the 20th of February for England, with a full cargo of pepper. On the 11th of September, 1603, both vessels anchored in the Downs, the 'Susan' and 'Ascension' having already arrived.* By this most successful voyage, for which Captain Lancaster was knighted, a profit of 95 per cent was made and two factories were established. On the 23rd of March, 1604, the second expedition, consisting of the same ships, sailed from Gravesend under Captain Henry Middleton, who was knighted on his return on the 6th of May, 1606. In this voyage, of which an account was published in 1606, and again in the volume of the Hakluyt Society for 1855, the ships proceeded to the Moluccas as well as Bantam, and though the 'Susan' was lost on the way home, the profits were enormous. On the 12th of March, 1607, the third expedition left Gravesend, and consisted of the 'Dragon,' Captain Keeling, an experienced seaman, who had commanded the 'Hector' in the previous voyage on the death of Captain Stiles, the 'Hector,' Captain Hawkins, and the 'Consent,' of 115 tons, Captain David Middleton. On the 17th of December, the 'Dragon' and 'Hector'

The original MS. of this voyage is lost, but Purchas gives an account in his "Pilgrimes," which has been reprinted in the journal of the "Hakluyt Society" for 1877. Purchas, it should be mentioned, succeeded Hakluyt in charge of the journals of the voyages of the East India Company's ships in 1620, and five years later published his abridgment of these journals and logs in four volumes under the title of "Hakluyte's Posthumus" or "Purchas, his Pilgrimes." Purchas died in 1626, and after his death, the MSS. were suffered to go to decay, or were abstracted.

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visited Saldanha Bay, on the 19th of February, 1608, they put into St. Augustine Bay, in Madagascar, and after visiting Socotra, where they separated in June, Captain Hawkins proceeded to Surat in the 'Hector,' which was thus the first English ship to visit India, and Captain Keeling proceeded to Priaman, in Sumatra, and anchored at Bantam on the 5th of October. While here he was joined by the 'Hector,' which arrived under command of the chief officer, Captain Hawkins having decided to remain at Surat, where he found the prospects favourable for establishing a factory. He accordingly proceeded to Agra, and presented a letter from his Sovereign, James I., to the Mogul Emperor, Jehangire, who, however, after promising to permit the English to establish a factory at Surat, cancelled the concession and left Captain Hawkins to find his way back to the coast. Captain Keeling, having sent the 'Dragon' to England, on the 1st of January, 1609, proceeded in the 'Hector' to the Moluccas, and thence returned home, arriving in the Downs on the 9th of May, 1610.

The fourth expedition, which sailed in 1608, consisted of the 'Ascension,' Captain Sharpeigh, and 'Union,' Captain Rowles, and was unfortunate, the former being wrecked in the Bay of Cambay; the 'Union' was afterwards met at Madagascar by Sir Henry Middleton, in 1610. The fifth voyage was made by the 'Consent,' Captain David Middleton, which brought home a valuable cargo of cloves. The sixth expedition consisted of the 'Trade's Increase,' of 1,100 tons, Sir Henry Middleton, who had made the second voyage, the 'Peppercorn,' Captain Downton, and the 'Darling.' The squadron sailed from the Downs on the 4th of April, 1610, and visited Socotra, whence Sir Henry Middleton dispatched the 'Peppercorn' to Aden, and himself proceeded to Mocha; here he and many of his men were made prisoners, but at length they recovered their freedom, and the ships sailed to Surat, which was reached on the 26th of September, 1611. The Portuguese offered great opposition to his trading at Surat, whence, after embarking Captain Hawkins on his return from Agra, he sailed for the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, where he was engaged in "romaging" Indian vessels, that is, forcing them to sell goods at his price, and then proceeded in the 'Peppercorn' to the Moluccas, where he died, it is said, of disappointment on learning that the 'Trade's Increase' had been lost on a coral reef. In the meantime, the eighth expedition, consisting of three vessels, the 'Clive,' 'Hector,' and 'Thomas,' sailed from England on the 18th of April, 1611, under the command of Captain Saris, who, after participating in Sir Henry Middleton's piratical proceedings at the entrance of the Red Sea, sailed for Japan, and on the 11th of June, 1613, cast anchor at Firando, where, notwithstanding the opposition of the Dutch, he received permission to establish a factory. The trade with Japan was relinquished

about the year 1624, but in 1673 an endeavour was made by the Company to revive it, as appears from an account inserted by Scheuchzer in an Appendix to Kempfer's "History of Japan," being an extract from a sea journal found among the papers of Sir Robert Southwell. In a short preface to this account, Scheuchzer says:—"I cannot find that any attempt to revive the trade was made till the reign of Charles II., in the year 1673, the journal of which undertaking I have thought fit to annex to this work." The extract from the journal which then follows, commences at the arrival of the ship at Nagasaki, in June, 1673, and breaks off at her departure in the ensuing August. As Captain Hawkins commanded the first English ship that arrived in India, and Captain Saris the first in Japan, so Captain Anthony Hippon of the 'Globe,' on the seventh voyage, was the first to visit the Coromandel Coast, whence he sailed for Bantam, Patanny, on the east coast of the Malay peninsula, and Siam; having established factories here, he revisited Masulipatam and Pulicat, and returned to England. The so-called ninth voyage consisted of the 'James,' Captain Marlowe, which also formed part of the tenth expedition, under that gallant seaman Captain Best, which consisted of the 'Hoseander,' 'Hector,' 'James,' and 'Soloman,' which sailed from Gravesend on the 1st of February, 1612. On arriving at Surat Captain Best established the first British factory in India, having secured a regular firman from the Mogul Emperor, and on the 29th of November, his squadron being threatened by a Portuguese fleet, which arrived to expel the intruders, he attacked them with spirit, and, he says, drove "three of their four ships on ground on the sands." Jehangire now became anxious to secure the alliance of the English, and entered into a regular treaty, giving full freedom of trade, which was delivered with much formality to Captain Best on the 6th of February, 1613. The East India Company now sent out squadrons every year, and that commanded by Captain Downton, which sailed in March, 1613, consisting of the 'New Year's Gift,' 'Hector,' 'Merchant Hope,' and 'Soloman,' is memorable for the great victory achieved in Swally Road, near Surat, in January, 1615, by Downton, when he beat off a large fleet, under the command of the Viceroy of Goa, with the loss of 350 men. Downton died at Bantam on the 6th of August in this year, greatly regretted as a gallant officer and fine seaman. Other voyages of importance were the twelfth, consisting of the 'Expedition,' Captain Newport, which sailed in 1612 with the Persian Ambassador, Sir Robert Shirley; that of Captain Walter Payton, who commanded a fleet which in 1614 took out Sir Thomas Roe as Ambassador to the Mogul Emperor, at whose court he remained for four years; and that of Captain Andrew Shillinge in 1620-22, consisting of the 'London,' 'Hart,' and 'Roebuck,' in the course of which the commander was killed in

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a fight with the Portuguese, as was also William Baffin, the eminent Arctic explorer, who, says Purchas, "dyed in the late Ormuz businesse, slain in fight with a shot, as he was trying his mathematicall projects and conclusions." The "Ormuz businesse" here referred to was the capture of the famed island of that name from the Portuguese in the year 1622. This was effected by a squadron of four Company's ships and two pinnaces, under Captains Weddell and Blythe, acting in conjunction with an army of Shah Abbas, the King of Persia, and thus was brought to a close the dominion of the Portuguese in the Persian Gulf, where they had been supreme since the days of the Great Albuquerque. From that day the Island of Ormuz, which for a century had been an emporium of trade in the East, and the wealth of whose merchants is attested by the well-known lines of Milton, became a desert, barely giving subsistence to a few fishermen. The traveller who stumbles over the ruins which may still be traced in the salt-incrusted plain, can scarcely credit the truth of the existence of a state of grandeur such as is described by the expression "the wealth of Ormuz or of Ind," and the statement of the Abbé Raynal, who avers "at the time of the arrival of the foreign merchants, it offered a more splendid and agreeable scene than any city in the East." By the terms of the treaty concluded with the King of Persia, the English were permitted to establish a factory at Gombroom, now named Bunder Abbas, on the coast of Persia, opposite Ormuz, but they were defrauded of the moiety of the customs of that port.

In 1628 the Company's agents established a factory at Madras, where they erected Fort St. George, which was created a Presidency in 1653-54, though subordinate to Surat, where resided the President of Council. At this time they had stations at Bunder Abbas and Bussorah, at Mocha, and at Agra, Ahmedabad, Scinde, Rajahpore, Carwar; also agencies at Cossimbazar, Ballasore and Patna, subordinate to the factory at Hooghly, which again was placed under the Presidency of Fort St. George. They still retained the stations at Bantam and other points in the Eastern Islands, though their importance gradually waned, but the factories at Massulipatam and Pulicat, on the Coromandel Coast, formed by Captain Hippon, were abandoned. In the year 1651, the privilege of free trade in Bengal with exemption from custom dues was obtained for the Company by Mr. Broughton, Surgeon of the Surat factory, from the Emperor Shah Jehan for saving the life of his daughter; and thus, through the public spirit of a medical officer, the Company obtained their first footing in Bengal. A little later they became a territorial power in India, by the acquisition of the Island of Bombay, which had been acquired by Charles II. by his marriage with the Infanta Catherine of Portugal. Finding the settlement unremunerative, by letters patent, dated 27th of March, 1668, he

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transferred the island to the East India Company, whose agent at Surat, Sir George Oxenden, took formal possession on the 23rd of September following. In 1702 the old Company, known as the London Company, and a rival Association, called the English Company, whose quarrels had nearly reduced both to ruin, amalgamated, and by Act of Parliament, assumed the title of "The United Company of Merchants Trading to the East Indies." But it needed the genius of a great man to weld the scattered factories and forts into a territorial power, and such a one appeared in the person of Robert Clive, who went out to Madras as a writer in the year 1744. His heroic defence of Arcot, seven years later, and his victory at Plassy in 1757, are memorable instances of the military genius which gained for him from the elder Pitt, the title of the "heaven-born General."

The great Company's Charter was renewed from time to time, but in 1833 it finally ceased to be a commercial corporation, and its mercantile marine was disposed of. Twenty-five years later its political extinction was decreed, and the Company Bahadoor gave place to the direct authority of the Queen, who last year assumed the Imperial title, this being the last phase in the marvellous story of British ascendancy in our Eastern Empire. When and how soon another change may supervene in our relations with India, he would be a bold man who predicted, as nothing in that country is so sure of happening as the unforeseen. However this may be, the world has never afforded a more extraordinary instance of the superiority of race, and when we regard its extent from Kurrachee to Tenasserim, taken in conjunction with its population, 250,000,000 of people, dependent or tributary, our Indian Empire is superior in grandeur to the empires of Alexander and Augustus Cæsar.

A record of navigation would not be complete without a slight sketch of the East India Companies of the European Powers. During the 17th century, Portugal, Holland, France, Sweden, and Denmark, attempted to compete with England—not unsuccessfully as regards the two first named Powers—for the trade of the East Indies, and it was not until the following century that this country had established a decided preponderance over these States. First Portugal yielded, then Sweden and Denmark retired from the field, Holland remained only in Java and the Eastern Islands, while Spain also maintained herself in the Moluccas and Philippine Islands. France never rivalled us as a commercial Power in the Indies, but she struggled desperately for empire, and not until the treaty of 1783 did we establish our superiority. During the revolutionary war her ships of war and privateers preyed on our commerce; but the capture of Mauritius and Bourbon finally broke her power for offence in the East. In the last decade of the 16th century the Government of the Netherlands also founded the Dutch East India Company, of which an account is given by

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Harris. It received its charter in the year 1595, and Houtman proceeded with four ships to the Indies, by the Cape of Good Hope, returning after an absence of two years and four months. They were now joined by some Amsterdam merchants, and in the year 1598, James Van Uck sailed from the Texel with eight ships. In the following year, squadrons sailed from Amsterdam and Zealand, and in 1601, no less than thirteen ships sailed from the Texel, under James Heemskirk, and eight of these ships encountered and repulsed thirty Spanish sail sent out to destroy them. The Dutch trade to the Indies prospered greatly; in 1613-14 they fitted out twenty-seven ships, and established factories at Surat and Amboyna—their capital at this time,—the seat of Government not being removed to Batavia until some years later, and the scene of the massacre of Englishmen in 1622, of which, and the tortures inflicted on the victims, Harris gives a detailed account in his history of the Rise and Progress of European trade with the East Indies. The Dutch ships chiefly traded to Acheen, where Cornelius Houtman lost his life in 1600 in defending his ships against an attempt of the king to seize them, and with this portion of Sumatra also the Portuguese and the English East India Company, at a later date, had business relations. But the captains and their ships, though their governments were at peace in Europe, carried on war, and we find that the Dutch navigators were commissioned by Prince Maurice of the States-General to attack the Portuguese and Spaniards, whose chief settlements were at the Moluccas and the Philippines; and to contest for the China trade with the former Power, whose Eastern possessions included Ormuz, Goa, Malacca and Macao, while their commerce was greater than that of any other Power. That renowned seaman, James Heemskirk, captured a rich Portuguese carrack returning from Macao, and the Dutch took Machian, one of the Moluccas, though they suffered some reverses at the hands of the Portuguese, who beat off Van Uck; and Juan de Sidon, Governor of the Moluccas, defeated a Dutch squadron of four sail on the 25th of April, 1610, capturing three of them. In 1616, however, the Dutch under Admiral Verpagen, captured or sunk four Portuguese ships, and assisted by the English, drove the Spaniards out of the Moluccas. They also made many other conquests in this century. In 1622, Jan Peter Koenen, Governor of Batavia, collected a large force for the capture of Macao, which had been unsuccessfully attempted some years before. He appeared before the city on the 22nd of June, with fifteen Dutch and two English ships, and landed a strong force, but was beaten off with an acknowledged loss of 130 men, or as the Portuguese say, 300. Sailing for Macao, the fleet anchored at Pehou, an island of the Ponghou, or Pescadores group, between the coast of China and the island of Formosa. Here the Dutch established themselves and interrupted the trade between Macao

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and Japan, and between Manilla and China, and in April, 1624, the Government of Pekin sent a force to dispossess them. A peace was now concluded betwen the rival parties, and in the latter part of the year the Dutch evacuated Pehow, and took possession of the harbour of Tayowan in the western part of Formosa. Here they erected forts, and in 1650, the Dutch garrison of 1200 men held Forts Zealand and Province at Tayowan, and other settlements on the north of the island, but in 1661 these latter were withdrawn, and after standing a siege in Fort Zealand, between May 1, 1661, and the following 1st of February, the Dutch finally surrendered the island to the Chinese General Koxingar.* In 1631, assisted by the King of Johore, they captured Malacca, and in 1653, the Cape of Good Hope, both in the occupation of the Portuguese; but these conquests, as also Ceylon, Java, and all the neighbouring possessions and islands under the authority of the Government of Batavia, were captured by a British Military and Naval Expedition in 1811; but the interests of India were in those days made subservient to those of England, and by the terms of the treaty of 1814, the East India Company surrendered Java, the Moluccas, and other settlements they had acquired with the expenditure of much blood and treasure, the British Government retaining only Cape Colony and Ceylon. Chinsurah, situated 20 miles north of Calcutta, was exchanged in 1824, with other places in India, for the British possessions in Sumatra, and thus the Dutch connection with India finally ceased. Chinsurah is famous as the place near which Colonel Forde, under Clive's orders, defeated the Dutch in 1759. That the Dutch trade to the East Indies was at one time very lucrative, may be gathered from the statement of Harris in his succinct history of the rise and progress of the Dutch East India Company, wherein he states that upon the original capital of £650,000 employed in this trade the dividends had been eighteen millions sterling in the year 1728. Early in the 18th century the Ostend East India Company was formed. When the Spanish Low-Countries were ceded by the treaty of Rastadt to the Crown of Austria, the Emperor Charles VI. granted letters patent to the merchants of Ostend to trade with the East Indies. In 1720 they equipped five large ships, and the following year six, three being for China, one for Mocha, another for Surat and Malabar coast, and the sixth for Bengal. Of this squadron one ship was seized by the Dutch, and another by an English privateer off Madagascar, but four others returned in safety, and their cargoes were disposed of at great profit. The Emperor of Austria, notwithstanding the protests of the French, Dutch, and English Governments, by virtue of his title of King of Spain, now conferred on this Company a regular charter, dated August, 1723, granting them special privileges for

* See Admiral Burney's "Voyages and Discoveries in Pacific Ocean," Vol. III. p. 238.

trading to the East and West Indies and coast of Africa for thirty years, and fixing their capital at six millions of florins. At length, after many negotiations and much intrigue, the Emperor, under date May 20, 1727, suspended the charter of the Ostend Company for seven years, and thus the maritime powers gained their point, and a general war was averted.

We have already briefly noted the steps by which Portugal attained to such a height of grandeur under her Viceroys Almeida and Albuquerqne. Within twenty years of Da Gama's adventurous voyage she had established herself at several important points between Socrota and Malacca, and her flag was paramount alike in the Indian Ocean, in the Red Sea and Persian Gulf, and the Bay of Bengal. But there was a gradual decline during the 16th century, and though she gained a footing in China by the occupation of Macao, her loss of Ormuz in 1622 inflicted a blow on her prestige from which she never recovered, and from that date British supremacy, as represented by the ships of the English East India Company, was established, and we seized the rod of Empire as it fell from the hands of the successors of Albuquerque. True they struggled gallantly before they bowed to the inexorable decree of fate, and the heroic defence, in 1739, of Bassein against the Mahratta Army by Pereira and De Pinto, who perished, sword in hand, in the breach, described in the pages of Captain Grant Duff's history of that warlike Hindoo confederacy is well-nigh as brilliant an achievement as any recorded in military history; but all was in vain, and when the broken remnants of the Portuguese garrison returned to Goa, escorted by a squadron of Company's ships, the commodore expressed his commiseration at the sad condition to which so many brave men had been reduced. The Portuguese settlements in India are now limited to Goa, Anjediva Island, 51 miles south-east of that city, Diu, and Damaun, all on the west coast.

The French East India Company was founded under the auspices of that greatest and most sagacious of French monarchs, Henry IV, and within a few years of the formation of the English Company by his contemporary, the greatest female sovereign this island has known. Francis I., by his proclamations of the years 1537 and 1543, had exhorted his subjects to emulate their neighbours, the Portuguese and Spaniards, in long voyages for purposes of commerce and discovery by which these nations had benefited so largely in prestige and wealth, and Henry III. also issued an edict, dated December 15, 1578, but without avail, and the only notable voyages made by a French navigator in this century were those undertaken by Cartier in 1534 and 1535, by which Francis I. acquired the countries about the St. Lawrence, to which that navigator gave the name of New France, but which are now known as Canada. On the 1st of June, 1604, Henry of Navarre issued a decree constituting the French East India Company, and grant-

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ing them exclusive privileges for a period of fifteen years, but the merchants failed to raise the necessary funds. Again, through the exertions of the promoter, a Dutchman named Gerard Le Roy, a second company was constituted under letters patent of Louis XIII., dated March 2, 1611, but difficulties again interposed, and it was not until a third company, constituted by their amalgamation, was formed four years later that active steps were taken to trade with the East Indies. An expedition was fitted out, and a settlement was made on the island of Madagascar for commercial purposes, but the venture ended in failure as the trade was inconsiderable, and the Company became involved. Especially interesting is the voyage made at this time by that noted French navigator Commodore Beaulieu. This officer had commanded one of the two ships of the first French expedition sent out by the East India Company in 1616, when Captain De Nets, owing to the opposition of the Dutch, was compelled to sell the smaller ship to the Sultan of Java. On October 2, 1619, Commodore Beaulieu sailed from Honfleur with three ships, the 'Montmorency,' of 450 tons, carrying 162 men and twenty-two guns; the 'Hope,' Captain Grave, of 400 tons, 117 men, and twenty-six guns; and the 'Hermitage' of 75 tons, thirty men, and eight guns. Soon after rounding the Cape, the Commodore sent the 'Hope' to Bantam, and proceeded himself to Madagascar, the Comoro Islands, and Cape Guardafui. When off Mount Dilly, near Cannanore, he lost eighteen men in a conflict with the crew of a native vessel he had boarded, and on the 1st of December anchored at the Island of Ticou off Sumatra, having been since the 2nd of October making the passage from Comorin. Owing to sickness, he had lost during these two months both his surgeons and twenty-five men, and he adds, "if the calm had continued but fifteen days longer, I believe I had lost all the men in my ship." On the 1st of January, 1624, Commodore Beaulieu sailed for Acheen in Sumatra. Here he lost fourteen men from sickness, and suffered greatly from the exactions of the king, whom he describes as a sanguinary and avaricious tyrant. On the 14th of July he proceeded to Ticou, but returned to Acheen on the 12th of October. At this time he learned the fate of the 'Hope,' Captain Grave, who, when about 20 leagues from Ticou, had sent on his long-boat, but the entire crew were lost, and he and all his men suffered from sickness. In this condition they met the Dutch ship 'Leyden,' of 1200 tons, commanded by William Schouten, who seized the 'Hope' as a prize, and treated the crew with great barbarity; indeed all through his narrative, the Commodore dwells on the rapacity and cruelty of the Dutch, contrasting them unfavourably with the English. His ship was afterwards restored to Captain Grave, who proceeded to Bantam and thence to Socotra, where his ship was burnt by the Dutch as he states. Commodore Beaulieu sent a boat for Captain Grave, and on the 15th of

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November arrived at Acheen, when he procured the release of the imprisoned French seamen, and after another visit to Ticou, where he completed his cargo of pepper, he sailed on the 1st of February, 1622, with a crew of seventy-five men, the survivors of the expedition. On the 1st of December, 1622, Commodore Beaulieu arrived at Havre de Grace, and his voyage was commercially not an unprofitable one, notwithstanding the loss of the 'Hope,' which had a cargo valued at £75,000. Commodore Beaulieu writing of the naval resources of the King of Acheen in Sumatra, at the time of his visit in 1620, says that this prince "is stronger by sea than any of his neighbours, for he has about one hundred great gallies, of whom a third part is much larger than any we build in Christendom. I saw the keel of an ordinary one that was 120 feet long, all in one piece. They put two men to an oar, who stand upright when they row. Their sails are square like those of a ship. The sides or planks of these gallies are 6 inches thick. They have commonly three good pieces of cannon, and the largest gallies have commonly 600 or 800 men." The Commodore did further good service to his country, and died in September, 1637, at the age of forty-eight. His papers and journals remained unpublished for twenty years after his return from his memorable voyage, when they appeared in M. De Thevent's collection of voyages. Under the auspices of Cardinal Richelieu, another company was chartered on the 24th of June, 1642, and on the 20th of September in the following year, its privileges were confirmed by the Regency acting on behalf of Louis XIV. For twenty years this Company sent annually a ship to the East Indies, chiefly to Madagascar, but the result was not encouraging, owing as it would seem to an inherent inability in the national character to succeed either in colonizing or commerce, and the futile efforts of their neighbours were regarded with contempt by the flourishing societies established in England and Holland. But Colbert, that great Finance Minister, elaborated a scheme which was distributed throughout France, and resulted in the formation of the East India Company, on the 7th of August, 1664. An edict was promulgated embodying his proposals, and in the following spring four large ships sailed from Brest for Madagascar, the name of which was changed to Dauphin's Island.* Five years later a move was made in the right direction by the establishment of a factory at Surat, where the English and Dutch had long been seated, and their manager in India, a capable man named Carrim, also established an agency on the Malabar Coast, and received a grant for the occupation of Port Louis in Mauritius, the island of Madagascar being ceded to the Crown. The King, at the instigation of Colbert, also afforded the Company practical proofs of his

* This settlement was the southernmost port of the Island, in lat. 25° 1′ S. long. 47° 3′ E., and is still called Fort Dauphin. Between this point, where the fort constructed by the French still exists and Tamatave Road is no safe anchorage.

appreciation of their efforts to extend the greatness of his kingdom by excusing them the payment of a debt of four million crowns due to the government, and exempting their cargoes from all import duties. But notwithstanding this powerful aid, the affairs of the Company languished, owing to the war with Holland in 1672-78, in which they suffered heavily, and the dishonesty of their servants, and in 1684, one year after the death of their powerful protector, it was found that half the capital, or about £300,000 had been absolutely lost, the return being nil.

In 1686 an alliance was formed with the King of Siam, but this ended also in disaster, for the King and his minister, one Constance, an Englishman, were murdered, and the French garrison in Bangkok cut off. Their settlement of Pondicherry, acquired for them in 1674 by Mr. Martin, was a greater success, and though it was captured by the Dutch in 1693, after an obstinate defence, it was surrendered on the conclusion of peace seven years later to its former masters, and became their chief factory and a fortress of great strength. In 1712, the East India Company was again in difficulties, and in May, 1719, they and the China and African Companies* were all amalgamated by royal edict into one corporation, called the Companies of the Indies. In July of the following year, by the terms of a second decree, the privileges of the combined association were made perpetual, and they were styled the "Perpetual Company of the Indies." Still under this grandiloquent title the Company were barely able to maintain a struggle for existence; in the years 1721-22, they were not able to send a single ship to India, and during the next fourteen years,

* The China Company was established in 1660, but was absorbed by the East India Company on its re-constitution four years later. Up to the year 1703 one ship annually made a voyage to Canton with great pecuniary success, but on the outbreak of the great European war these ceased, and its rights to trade with China, Tonquin, and Cochin China lay dormant until its amalgamation in 1719. The African Company originally traded from Dieppe to Senegal, but the trade came into the hands of the merchants of Rouen, and in 1664 to the West India Company. On the dissolution of this company ten years later the old private company of Senegal was revived, but in 1681, Colbert induced the three proprietors to dispose of the greater part of their privileges to an association known as the Guinea Company, the rest remaining in their hands. After many vicissitudes the latter society was united in 1719, to the Company of the Indies and the Guinea Company, which in the year 1701 acquired from Philip V. of Spain the liberty of transporting negroes to the Spanish West Indies, and finally by the Treaty of Utrecht conveyed its privileges to the English, and gave rise to the South Sea Company, established by Lord Oxford on the advice of Sir John Blount. Regarding the West India Company, it owed its foundation to a native of Rouen, one Robert Cavalier de la Salle, who discovered the river Mississippi in 1680, and four years later proceeded with four ships, and a large number of colonists to take possession of the adjacent country. He missed the mouths of the river and settled at another point where he was killed on the 20th March, 1687, the colony being reduced by disease to only 100 souls. Seven years later, one Mr. Heberville of Canada, discovered the mouths of the Mississippi, and designed to settle there, but died, and the affair slept until the year 1712, when Mr. A. Crozat, having received letters patent, established a colony there, and called the river the St. Louis, and the country Louisiana.

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three or four only were dispatched. But in 1737, the French Minister of Finance, M. Orry de Fulvy infused fresh vigour by the supply of considerable sums of money; in two years their returns were doubled, in three, trebled, and in 1742 the sale at Port l'Orient produced twenty-four millions of French livres, equal to one million sterling, while seven ships brought rich cargoes home. However, this prosperity was delusive, for when, owing to the drain of the war with England, M. de Fulvy withdrew the annual subsidies, the dividends sunk to a much lower level. The French now became an actively aggressive power, and entered upon that career of rivalry with us which only terminated with the capture of Mauritius in 1810. Their commercial enterprises were subordinated to the exigencies of ambitious schemes of conquest, and they struggled desperately with us for empire, and at one time were within an ace of success, but they were deserted at home, and the treaty of 1783 snatched for ever the prize which appeared almost within their grasp. The annals of the French in India are illumined by the deeds of great warriors like Dupleix, Bussy, Lally, La Bourdonnais and Suffren, but they were well matched by such doughty champions as Clive, Lawrence, Coote, and Hughes; the star of England was in the ascendant, and before it the feebler light of France "paled its ineffectual fires." The French possessions in India now consist of Pondicherry, Caricall, and Yavaon, in the Madras Presidency, the latter inland near the bifurcation of the Godavery and River of Coringa; Chandernagore, seventeen miles north of Calcutta, occupied in 1700, when Calcutta was first settled by the English, captured in 1757 by Clive and Watson, restored with her other factories six years later, again lost in 1793, and finally restored at the peace in 1814; and Mahé on the west coast, seven miles from Tellicherry, captured by us in 1779, but restored in 1814. The Danish East India Company was founded about the year 1612, under the protection of King Christian IV., the capital of the Copenhagen merchants constituting it, consisting of 250 shares of 1,000 rix-dollars each. Afterwards they fitted out four ships trading to the East Indies, and were so successful, that they founded a settlement at Tranquebar on the Coromandel Coast, 147 miles south of Madras, where they built a fort and town. The trade was inconsiderable, but it excited the jealousy of the Dutch, who prevailed on the Rajah of Tanjore to attack the Danes, though owing to the timely and gallant assistance afforded by the English Government at Fort St. George, the attempt was defeated. In April, 1728, the King of Denmark, encouraged by the opening made by the extinction of the Ostend Company, gave a fresh Charter to the Company, by which its commerce was enlarged and extended. The Danish possessions in India—Tranquebar and Serampore, near Calcutta, of which city it became the Alsatia, being the resort of all persons flying from justice—were

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purchased from the Danish Government by the East India Company in 1845. The Danes are also said to have established a settlement in the Persian Gulf, at Charrack, a town opposite the island of Kais, (Kenn,) near to which is Charrack Hill, said to be the Mount Ochus of the Ancients.

The design of forming a Swedish East India Company was one of the cherished dreams of that greatest of Swedish Monarchs, Gustavus Adolphus, and he actually invited his subjects to enter into a trade with those countries under his sign-manual, dated at Stockholm the 14th of June, 1626, but the outbreak of war with Germany prevented the realization of the design. Beyond an attempt made by his daughter, Queen Christina, to found a colony in New Jersey, where her subjects established three towns, Christina, Elsinburgh, and Gottenburgh, but from which they were driven by the Dutch, who here, as in India, ever displayed a narrow and jealous policy towards their European neighbours, the Swedes made no attempt to extend their commerce; but on the ruin of the Ostend Company, the Swedish Government, at the instigation of a rich merchant, Henry Kenning by name, conceded to him and his associates, who agreed to pay a subsidy for the privilege, the liberty of trading from the town of Gotten burgh to the East Indies, between the Cape of Good Hope and Japan, the charter to be for fifteen years from the 14th of June, 1731. Two years later, two ships, the 'Frederick' and the 'Ulrica,' fitted for trade or war, quitted the port of Gottenburgh for China, and a factory was established on the Canton River. The Company, unlike the Portuguese, Dutch, and Danes, never settled in India, and their trade to the East was but insignificant.

RUSSIA'S ASIATIC POLICY.

Octopus-like Russia has for generations clung to ever increasing acquisitions of territory. This at least is a postulate which nobody can deny and none will care to dispute. It is nevertheless strange that it should be so, taking into consideration the surrounding circumstances, and the special difficulties of so greedy a policy in her case. More vast in extent and less enriched by nature than any country in Europe, and proportionately less capable of profiting by, or being an advantage to such boundless annexations, she yet seems insatiable of territorial aggrandisement; and ever eager to spy out other worlds to conquer, her encroachments have been ceaseless.

Beginning with the seizure (in 1721) from Sweden of the site whereon stands her present capital, Russia has steadily and persistently crept Eastward, grasping land here, crushing a people there, ingratiating herself sometimes, threatening often, but always stirring up discord, arousing suspicions, meddling mischievously in

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the government of intervening States, and virtually annihilating space by corruption, or brute force, whichever weapon seemed fittest for the object in hand. It used to be said of our own policy in India, that it was one of intervention, occupation, spoliation and annexation; but at least no ghostlike Poland or Khiva can arise and shake its gory hand in deprecation of our acts, nor can torn treaties, or perjured promises be brought up in evidence against us.

We will not stop, however, to comment on Russia's earlier efforts to spread her dominion, nor more than allude in passing to that chimerical document "the Will of Peter the Great," which in effect was merely the embodiment of a traditionary idea, the long cherished dream of the Czars to found a vast Eastern Empire in unison with their European possessions—but at once enter upon the events which unmistakeably and in clear catenation led up to the present critical condition of affairs in Afghanistan.

When the rulers of Russia had determined to advance into Central Asia, it at once became apparent that so adventurous a course could only be checked in its wild career by the intervention of another Power equal in might and as ambitious as its adversary. England's supremacy in India was in fact threatened by the progress of invasion, and the "Central Asian question" became one of paramount political significance. Thus, with one exception, other European nations have hitherto stood aside, and continue to watch with growing interest the aspect of the silent rivals as they approach within striking distance, and look upon collision as inevitable. But whether in the end that meeting resemble the gentle touch of a ponderous hammer under mechanical control, or the rough work of a village blacksmith, remains to be seen. Yet forsooth we are taunted with Russophobia, and are said to be subject to periodical panics if we dare to denounce in the Press the strategy of our wily antagonist. It may not be right, it certainly is not politic, to call a spade a spade, but there are occasions when to be silent is to evince timidity, and to be chary of terms is to stultify narration. For what are the stubborn facts of history? In the very first year of the present century the Emperor Paul, in concert with Napoleon the Great, contemplated an invasion of India. 35,000 French joined by as many Russian troops and 50,000 Cossacks of the Don were to meet at Astracan and proceed across the Caspian Sea to Astrabad, whence the whole army was to march on Herat, the key of India, and although the arrangement fell through on account of the death of the Czar a few weeks before the date fixed for the expedition, Napoleon renewed the proposal in 1807 to array an allied army in Persia, a plan of action approved by Paul's successor as may be gathered from the following account of it in the Treaty of Tilsit. "France and Russia, in conjunction, to march an army to the banks of the Indus. A Russian force of 35,000 men to assemble at Astracan (25,000 regulars and 10,000 Cossacks) to be conveyed across the Caspian Sea to Astrabad, there to await the arrival of the

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French troops—Astrabad to be the rendezvous of the combined army, to contain the magazines for military stores and provisions, and to be the central point of communication between France, Hindostan, and Russia. On the junction of the French and Russians at Astrabad the combined army immediately to begin its march and to proceed by the cities of Meshed, Herat and Candahar to the Indus." This scheme, however, like the last came to nothing and Alexander was fain to betake himself to diplomacy to gain his ends. In 1814 by the treaty of Goolestan he obtained from Persia all the territories lying south of the Caucasus, whereupon he turned the Caspian Sea into a Russian lake, by depriving Persia of the right of sailing on its waters except under the flag of the spread eagle. This was in itself sufficient to create a standing sore, and accordingly in 1826 Persia took up arms to defend her rights, but had again to yield to her powerful foe, who thus obtained a coveted footing nearer the goal of all her hopes and machinations. Moreover the Shah was subsequently used as a catspaw to make encroachments on Afghanistan, and in 1837 he advanced against Herat, whereupon our government was roused to action, and we became involved in a long and somewhat disastrous campaign. Of course it was clear to our Government whence emanated the crooked counsels that brought about the Afghan War, and yet Count Nesselrode protested in the name of the Czar that no intrigue was in their minds, that the idea of Russia having any design on India was enough to provoke laughter, that the immense distances which lay between their outposts in the Caucasus and Afghanistan forbade the realization of so insane an adventure, or language to this effect, and yet nevertheless while this document was on its way to England, the first unsuccessful expedition to cross the steppes of Khiva was being organized. During the Crimean War the Czar Nicholas once more took up the idea of an invasion of India, and a plan of operations was drawn up by General Duhamel, but it had to be discarded under the pressure of subsequent events. Again in 1864 we were assured that Russia had fulfilled her destiny in the East, that she had reached the limit of her Empire, and yet, "the ink of this despatch was hardly dry, when she conquered the whole of Western Turkestan, ending in Samarcand." Nor can we forget the protestations and assurances of the Czar's government voluntarily offered, when five years ago in the name of humanity it despatched three columns against the interesting city of Khiva, an army which under the command of the General Kaufmann, now in Tashkend, ruthlessly slaughtered the unfortunate inhabitants of that remote land. Thus partly by force and partly by persuasion the Khanates fell one by one, and a free road to the Oxus lay open to the armies of the conqueror—Tashkend, Khojend, Samarcand, Bokhara and Khiva are already annexed or subjected to her influence, and now she is pushing up to the natural barrier formed by the Hindoo Koosh. It may be, as Sir John Malcolm observed, that in thus

pursuing a career of annexation Russia only imitates ourselves and follows the natural policy of a great military power, impelling her forward mysteriously and working beneath the surface. But assuming the presence of method and far reaching foresight in her policy, with what object have all these advances been made? Are they, as so respectable an authority as Sir Arthur Conyngham would have us believe, tending to the conquest of China? or can it be as Field-Marshal Von Kuhnenfeld (the Austrian War Minister in 1858) predicted that the end and object of Russia is the seaboard of the Persian Gulf? "She will not," said this Minister, "reach the shores of the Persian Gulf in one stride, or by means of one great war. But taking advantage of continental complications, when the attention and energy of European States are engaged in contests more nearly concerning them, she will endeavour to reach the Persian Gulf step by step, by annexing separate districts of Armenia by operating against Khiva and Bokhara, and by seizing Persian provinces." "It is true," he goes on to observe, "that, at first the aggressive policy of Russia in the East will only threaten the kingdoms of Turkey and Persia, but as neither one nor the other, nor both combined would be strong enough, without assistance, to meet the danger successfully, England must do so; and it is certain that she must sooner or later become engaged in a fierce contest for supremacy with Russia. The Euphrates Valley Railway becomes therefore a fact of inestimable importance in the problem of this great contest." Is this prophecy, therefore, the right rendering of Russian sphinx-like projects of aggression, or do they justify and explain the Russophobia with which we are twitted and which is now said to be epidemic in this country?

South of the River Oxus, and not far removed from our north-western frontier, lie the fertile and beautiful provinces of Badakshan and Wakhan, the cradle of the Arian race. The western limits of Badakshan almost touch the present Russian line of demarcation, and the range of the Hindoo Koosh rises between Faizabad, the provincial capital, and Cabul. This mountain range presents a natural boundary so long ostentatiously sought by Russia, but would even it suffice? would it satisfy the Russian craving for an eastern seaboard? That the eyes of the Czars have long been directed to the Hindoo Koosh as a possible starting point for fresh advances, is a fact of historical interest. In 1724 the Russian envoy at the Court of Bokhara reported on the wealth of Badakshan and other regions of the Oxus in valuables and precious stones, and he wound up his despatch in these memorable terms:—"My last word to your Imperial Majesty is this, if you wish to confer a permanent benefit on your exchequer, you might easily do so in these regions. Your power would carry everything before it, and be a sufficient reason in itself."

Hear, again, what the Czar Paul put in his Order of the Day to

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the Expeditionary force which was destined for the East:—"all the wealth of India will be your reward."

And what as to the practicability of a march, such as was contemplated, from the Caspian to Herat? Colonel Valentine Baker, or Baker Pasha, by which name he will ever be best known, is well acquainted with every inch of the ground, and he declares that an army could be marched along the left bank of the Attrek from the Caspian to Meshed, or by the right bank of the Attrek and the Simbur to Meshed and Herat. "There is no military difficulty of any sort," he says, "in the march of an army of very considerable strength, except the difficulty of supply, which, of course, could be met by making use of the forts mentioned." But under present circumstances it is unlikely, or rather impossible, for so formidable an undertaking to be feasibly conceived, and we may at once dismiss all reference to it. The danger now lies not in open attack and a militarily conducted plan of operations, but in negative hostility and covert opposition. Two letters have lately appeared in the *Times* on this view of the subject, which merit thoughtful consideration, and no doubt they will receive it from those who are responsible to Parliament and the country for a due appreciation of the gravity of the crisis. Sir J. Stevens deals with the Afghan difficulty as a mere episode in the designs of Russia, and he puts the direct question—is the strengthening of our frontier, that is, the extension of it beyond the mountain passes, a matter of pressing importance, in view of the visible alliance between Russia, as represented by General Kaufmann, and the Ameer of Cabul? In the opinion of this legal luminary the reply is "unequivocally in the affirmative;" for he thinks that Russia having obtained a moral ascendency in Afghanistan, might be enabled to form a native army, "resembling our Indian army in its composition, but composed, as far as the native troops go, of better materials." The danger to India lies not in a single march, but in a succession of conquests or alliances, and he instances our own dealings in days gone by with the Sikhs as proof of what can be affected by a judicious manipulation of their warlike proclivities and their loyalty to the powers that be. But in addition to this moral supremacy over the minds and persons of the Native States, Russia could appeal very powerfully to their plundering instincts, and contrast the advantages of an alliance with an adventurous free-lance, and a staid, money-grubbing, respectable community, such as the Government of India. Sir J. Stevens almost makes himself the apologist for the former when he sees no reason why General Kaufmann should not make such an alliance; he does not even think it either dignified or just to find fault with him; but he adds the patriotic corollary that there are "many cogent reasons why, if we can, we should defeat his plans."

On the other hand, and yet in much the same vein and line of

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argument, Sir Bartle Frere's semi-official minute, though dated four years ago, has a strangely piquant flavour as apposite to the question of the hour. His letter to the historian of the last Afghan War is in fact an exhaustive treatise on the Asiatic policy of Russia as well as of ourselves, and it deals with motives and results in the trenchant and uncompromising spirit becoming a statesman of his fame and experience.

The "masterly inactivity" of Sir John Lawrence he alludes to only to condemn it decisively. We cannot afford to be idle, we cannot ignore events, we cannot pretend to welcome as neighbours such political tricksters as the Russians, except in an independent spirit, and as masters of the situation. Their policy, in contrast with ours, is positive, active and aggressive. The exigencies of her position forbid her to stand still until she meets with some physical or political obstacle. The question as to when the two frontiers will be conterminous is in fact only one of time, and this ought to be anticipated. "Nothing, I believe," says Sir Bartle, "will be effectual to arrest their progress towards India till we have British officers stationed on the Indian side of a well-defined frontier, exercising a control over the politics of the semi-civilized races on our side of the border, and in constant, frank, diplomatic communication with Russian officers on the other side."

Where then should this frontier line be drawn? On the Indus or the Oxus? We have seen that rivers are of little moment as lines of demarcation. Russia contemplates the occupation of Merv and Herat, whilst we have advanced our outposts to Quetta, *en route* to Candahar. Is it likely that come what will of our present operations in Afghanistan Russia will cease to manœuvre, to intrigue, to creep forward, and take advantage of every mistake on the chess-board of Asiatic policy. Surely we have indicated sufficiently the tendencies and instincts of the Czar's government, and the aptitudes of her ambitious and enterprising commanders to push onward to the Indian Ocean. Be this as it may, there is one phase of the Afghan difficulty which cannot fail to strike everyone who has studied Oriental history. We must be prepared for the fact that Russian gold and Russian brains will be busy throughout our campaign, and the effect will be disastrous and disquieting among the easily tempted and perfidious hill-tribes; whether also, as Sir J. Stephens imagines, Russia will go so far as to secretly furnish arms and officers to the Afghans, must also be taken into account, and when it is considered that already the Ameer can place 10,000 rifles (our own gift) in the field, to say nothing of shell-guns, the addition of even a battery of Gatlings would be compromising to the safety of a column on the march through any of the innumerable defiles.

"If," asks Sir Bartle Frere, "we suppose Afghanistan only so far Russianized that Russian travellers freely move about the country; that Russian officers and men, not necessarily in the pay of the Russian Government, but deserters possibly or vagabonds from

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Russia, drill the Ameer's troops, cast his cannon, coin his rupees and physic him and his subjects, what would be the effect in India?" He replies himself that every Princeling on the frontier will see in the Russians a possible alternative claimant for empire; all the disaffected, dangerous and criminal classes of India will be ready for the strife, and the elements of a "pretty quarrel" will be set to work out their mischievous results. However, we are fairly committed to a campaign now, and it behoves us to carry it to a successful issue in no half-and-half manner. We must be prompt —we must be cautious—we must be effective, and ever mindful of the sinister designs of the watchful Power in the background, we must advance to the very confines of the enemy's country, and from the very stronghold which witnessed the discomfiture of Elphinstone's unfortunate force, as well as from the fort which has been designated the key of India, dictate uncompromising terms of submission to the Ameer, if not an absolute sovereignty over his dominions.

ARMY CRIME IN 1877.

"Brevity" may be "the soul of wit," but we think it is worth the consideration of the authorities whether it may not be, in certain cases, carried too far. Prison Reports are neither expected to be brimful of humour, nor interlined with quotations from Scripture. In them we certainly, however, expect to find something more than a mere record of crimes committed, sentences awarded, and punishments inflicted upon soldiers during the year 1877. In a Report forwarded by the Inspector-General of Military Prisons to the Secretary of State for War, for "presentation to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty," the public should find some information relative to how soldier-prisoners are fed, clothed, and lodged; as well as the manner in which they are employed while in prison, and whether their enforced confinement has made them better or worse soldiers. A society, which has for its object the reclamation of civilian prisoners, if called upon to do so, could supply information as to the well-doing or otherwise of all criminals it had assisted since it came into existence. And if a society with only a few clerks can do this, surely a department with clerks by the score, and the whole machinery of the army clerical staff behind it, should be able to ascertain the effect punishment had had upon every soldier who had undergone imprisonment. For such information we, in this Report, would seek in vain.

All punishment is supposed to be reformatory; the purpose being to reclaim the offenders in the first place, and in the second, deter others from committing like offences. This, however, seems quite to have escaped the memory of our Military prison authorities,

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who, if their published reports are to be taken as proofs of their intentions, advocate a vindictive system of punishment for all offences committed by soldiers. "An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth," falls far short, apparently, of their ideas of correction. Continually asking for severer punishments, greater power to enforce sterner discipline, and other means of making a prisoner's wretched existence more wretched still, they never seem capable of realizing the fact that this system has the effect of augmenting and not decreasing crime.

If Colonel Du Cane would only look over his old Reports, before drawing up a new one, he would, we are convinced, be the first to acknowledge how miserably all his plans have turned out, as well as his forecasts of what would happen when, say, associated imprisonment had been exterminated. In the Report for 1868 he describes associated imprisonment as being "unfortunately the exception in Military prisons," and in subsequent Reports he refers either to weekly payments, or something equally wide of the mark, as the cause of crime in the British Army. In the Report for 1871 he suggests that the number of public-houses should be restricted in garrison towns, and that the military authorities "in such localities should have a very powerful voice in the issue of licenses." "Punishment," he conscientiously enough adds in the same Report, "will not deter men from crime, but their sufferings, no doubt, deter others from following their example." But the following year he says that, "No amount of punishment will prevent the commission of offences unless there is a considerable certainty that the offenders will be detected." Now if this later theory of Colonel Du Cane's holds true, such crimes as "drunkenness," "insubordination," and "absence without leave," would in time disappear from among soldiers, for "there is a considerable certainty" of all who commit such offences being detected. These crimes, however, have increased, and, as we will show presently, despite the "increased stringency" adopted at Millbank, &c., are increasing.

The 1873 Report admits inferentially that the want of tact in non-commissioned officers, "may often cause the irritation which leads to the commission of crimes," a cause again alluded to in 1874, in the following words: "There can be little doubt that the amount of this crime, (insubordination,) as well as that of desertion, is affected very much by the way in which the soldier is managed, and that a great deal depends on the tone and bearing of the officers and non-commissioned officers towards the men."

The latter remarks are much to the point, and we hoped at the time that a new and a more humane era in the treatment of soldier prisoners was about to be inaugurated. The Report for 1875, however, dispelled that illusion, as in it not only greater severity is recommended, but a decrease in food as well. "What is more important," writes Colonel Du Cane, "in this respect (sufficient

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food) experience has shown that, the effect on a man's comrades, on his return to duty, would not be what is desired, if it was known that he had enjoyed (*sic*) a full amount of food during his imprisonment." The question as to whether a man's comrades might be incensed at the treatment he had received, and that this feeling would quite obliterate in their minds his guilt as an offender, never seems to arise in the mind of the writer. Yet we think an account of a course of semi-starvation, supplemented by such cruelties, as crank shot-drill, dark cells, and flogging, would have quite an opposite effect upon the listeners than what Colonel Du Cane supposes.

It would be well, when the subject of penal discipline in the Army next comes before Parliament, if some of the members would inquire of the Secretary of State for War, "what military punishment really is?" for although flogging has been abolished throughout the Service, it still can be inflicted upon soldier prisoners, while "solitary imprisonment" also remains a blot, not so much upon the humanity, as upon the common sense of our time. We believe there are not half a dozen members of the House of Commons aware that "solitary" and "separate" in the dictionary of the barracks are terms virtually identical in meaning.

And what a reproach is this upon our boasted system of army improvement, that a method which professes to raise the moral character of the soldier, treats him upon a principle which would probably be ineffectual, and would certainly be cruel in the case of a refractory child. Solitary and separate confinement is the most dreary and degrading penalty, the lash excepted, that can be inflicted upon a man, as cruel in itself, as it is worthless from a reformatory point of view. Solitary confinement, as it is well known, leads to a torpor of mind and a total blunting of all intellectual faculties in those subjected to its influence, and so cannot be beneficial. Inducing sullenness on the part of the victim, and sympathy among his comrades, this punishment is on a par with those most senseless of punishments, "shot-drill" and the "crank." Next, perhaps, to that, which is familiar to French convicts as "dragging the bullet," they are both monstrous and purposeless tortures. The late Mr. Charles Dickens published in "Household Words," some twenty years since, an account of the process of shot-drill, written by a private, who having undergone the misery, could describe the monotony, the pain, and the utter uselessness of a task that had no other object than torture.

If severity in punishment lessened crime, we should be among the foremost to uphold the practice we now so emphatically condemn; but all the statistics of crime go to prove that it diminishes whenever the simpler deterrent element ceases to predominate. Up to 1820, all crimes, from murder to larceny of five shillings taken privately in a shop, were punishable with death. It was only in the year 1772 that pressing to death for refusing to plead

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was abolished in England, while we can read in the "Gentleman's Magazine" for 1788, an account of the execution of Margaret Sullivan, *who was condemned to be burnt alive on the 25th of June, 1788, (only ninety years since), for coining.*" This sentence was duly carried into effect, being described in the Magazine referred to as follows:—"As soon as she came to the stake, she was placed upon a stool, which was instantly removed from under her and she left suspended, when the faggots were placed round her, and being set on fire, she was soon consumed to ashes."

A few years before this (1777), Sir W. Meredith said in Parliament. "There lies at this moment in Newgate, under sentence to be burnt alive, a girl just turned fourteen. At her master's bidding she hid some whitewashed farthings behind her stays, on which the jury found her guilty as an accomplice. The master was hanged last Wednesday, and the faggots all lay ready, no reprieve came till just as the cart was setting out, and the girl would have been burnt alive on the same day, only for the humane but casual interference of Lord Weymouth." Yet we have no doubt there were people then, as there are in the present day, asking for greater power to punish; and urging, then as now, that unless this was granted to them, the passing of base coin would continue to increase, until the constitution was undermined and placed in peril by such leniency.

It is pleasant to turn from reading of such terrible times, to peruse what was being done in Tuscany about the same period. Béranger in his valuable work 'De la Répression Pénale' tells us that. "In countries where executions are abolished or seldom witnessed, the manners of the people become mild, and crimes deserving capital punishment extremely rare. In Tuscany under the reign of the Grand Duke Leopold I., the punishment of death was virtually, and in fact abolished from 1765. After twenty years trial, in order to prepare his subjects for its definite abolition. Leopold published his celebrated penal code on November 30, 1786, in the preamble of which are these remarkable words, dictated, I repeat by twenty years' experience. "We have ascertained with the greatest satisfaction, that mild punishments, when accompanied by the most exact vigilance in the prevention of crime, quickness in having the trial brought to a conclusion and a promptitude and a certainty in having the real delinquents punished, very far from increasing the quantity of crime, has not only considerably diminished ordinary offences, but has rendered those of an atrocious character unheard of. We have therefore determined no longer to delay reforming the penal code, and definitely to abolish the punishment of torture and death, as useless for the end proposed by society."

These words are as true now as they were one hundred and one years ago. Martinets shelter themselves behind the dogma, that "military law to be effective must be both unjust, severe, and

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cruel." We deny that such is the case, and call upon its advocates to prove by any means their belief. Poor humanity is the same all the world over, it loves and obeys the just and the merciful ruler, hates and disobeys the unfair and the cruel commander. The barometer does not more surely denote the change of temperature existing bteween midday heat, and midnight chill, than does the comparative absence of—or the abundance of crime in a corps, testify to the ability or otherwise of its colonel. One of the greatest punishers it was ever our misfortune to know, was at the same time one of the smartest officers—from the Horse Guards' point of view—in the service. After attaining field officer's rank, he exchanged into a regiment in India with the view of ultimately becoming its colonel, and bringing the regiment home. War broke out, and *the* colonel one of the bravest and best men that ever drew sword, at once volunteered to march his regiment to the battle field. The offer was promptly accepted by the government, and rejoiced over by all but *one* man. Need we say who that man was? It was the great martinet field-officer, who when he heard the route had arrived, deserted his regiment and made for the nearest seaport. Here he took ship for home, and some months afterwards reported himself at the Horse Guards. He had many and powerful friends, and instead of being brought to court-martial and cashiered, was allowed to go upon half-pay. On that list he gradually worked up to be lieut.-colonel, and still with plenty of influence had no difficulty in exchanging from half to full pay. He again became great in drill and in discipline of the kind we have attempted to describe. When however the Crimean war broke out he at once retired upon half pay, and is now, or was at least a few months ago, high up in the list of generals.

There were, as remarked, doubtless advocates for burning the passers of bad money to death, a hundred years ago, as there are now officers who look back to the flogging days with delight. Men who think their fellow creatures can only be governed by fear have lived in all ages. Fortunately, however, the memory of such are never respected, while the names of officers like Sir Charles Napier and Havelock will always be revered by the men of the British Army. We have plenty of as good officers now, Lord Napier of Magdala, and Sir Garnet Wolseley being two we can name with more than ordinary confidence, as being generals in the fullest sense of the term, but humane, good men as well.

In the present and in previous Reports upon Military Prisons, there is one crime noticeable by its absence. It is a most serious military offence, one which the Articles of War declare should be punished with *death* or *penal servitude*. Yet we are confident the crime we refer to—"*a sentinel sleeping at his post*," is a very common one, and were it one for which at home a few days confinement to barracks would be the award, many, many soldiers now in he receipt of good conduct pay would suffer. And what causes

this concealment? All non commissioned officers and privates, if this question was put to them separately would reply, "the punishment for such an offence in time of peace was immeasureably too severe, so it is winked at."

We will explain how the law is, and we think rightly to, in such cases rendered to all intents and purposes nugatory. Should a sergeant or corporal, when marching a relief round at night, not be challenged by a sentry, he will at once come to the conclusion the man has either left his post or is asleep. He at once then halts the relief, and either sends one man forward to see what is the matter or goes by himself. The former is usually done, when if the sentinel is asleep his comrades wake him, and some excuse being made to the non-commissioned officer, the matter is hushed up for the sole reason that were the man confined, he must, by the Articles of War, be tried by a general court-martial. We mention this just as an instance of the utter uselessness of undue severity in punishment.

We have already referred to the inutility of solitary confinement. We mentioned as well how the fact of so many men living in association was alleged to have increased crime in Military prisons, and until all were confined on the separate system, it was also said no beneficial results from prison discipline could be expected. In 1867 the accommodation for Military prisoners in Great Britain was 1,141, of which 541 lived in separate cells, and 601 lived in association, or together. In 1877 the accommodation for the same in the United Kingdom was 1,286, of which there are only fourteen men living in association, that being at the small Military prison of Glencorse in Scotland. "The conduct of the prisoners," writes the officer in charge at Glencorse, throughout the year has been very good, not one case of insubordination occurred, nor the commission of any other offence which my powers were inadequate to deal with, consequently no prisoners had to be brought before a visitor for misconduct." Remember this is the highest testimony given in this Report of the good conduct of the prisoners, who during 1877, at Glencorse, numbered 281 admissions.

Let us proceed with our comparison, between the solitary system of 1877 and the semi-associated one of ten years earlier. During 1867 the daily average number of prisoners confined throughout the year was 1,075, in 1877 it was 1,045. At the first glance a slight improvement seems manifest, but on referring to page 13, we find there are 1,238 additional "Naval and Military Prisoners" confined in local prisons in England and Wales, on the 25th of December, 1877. The craft of linking soldiers and sailors together in a Report does not speak well for the department over which Colonel Du Cane presides. A return of each soldier, sailor or marine undergoing the sentence of court-martial is known perfectly to the Military prison staff, and when we see prisoners mixed in this manner, we are almost bound to assume, it has been done

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for the purpose of misleading the public. However, we think a pretty near approximation to the number of soldiers in confinement may be arrived at. Lewes, for instance, held seventy-two prisoners on last Christmas day. This being a prison for seamen we may conclude that sixty of the above number were either sailors or marines, the regiment stationed at Brighton probably supplying the remainder. Turning to pages 14 and 16, we find next that eighty-two of the number belonged to Chatham, thirty-one to Cork, fifty-seven to Devonport, sixty-seven to Dover, three to Leith, thirty to Gosport, eighteen to Pembroke, eleven to Portland, ninety-six to Portsmouth, seventeen to Sheerness, nine to Walmer, three to Weymouth, and six to Yarmouth, 430 in all. These being garrison towns, in which there are far more soldiers than marines stationed; we will be outside of the mark when we put down one-half, or 215 as sailors, marines and marine artillerymen, which leaves 1,023 to be added to the average total of military prisoners in confinement, giving a gross total of 2,068, or double the number ten years ago.

When we go back another ten years—to 1857, the result from a reformer's point of view, is still more disheartening for the daily average then of prisoners in confinement was 754 or about one-third of what it is at present, although association was then the rule, and solitary confinement almost the exception.

Having thus drawn attention to the unfortunate result, the outcome of the separate, or cell system of punishment, we will proceed to analyse the Report still further, taking our figures as well as our facts from the published statements of Colonel Du Cane and his predecessor in office, Colonel Henderson.

The best proof of a system for which the repression of crime is claimed, would naturally be a decrease in the number of offences among men subject to the improving influences of the system. At page 12, table 8 of this Report, we are informed that of 6,461 prisoners, 2,412 were punished, fifty-six of them as many as fourteen times and *upwards*. Some may have been punished forty times, but as fourteen is the highest number given, we, by a simple process of arithmetic, learn that 7,038 punishments were awarded during the past year in Military prisons. When we refer to former years, to a time when the solitary system had not shed its beneficent rays upon soldier prisoners, we are at once startled by the contrast. In 1856, for instance, the total number of punishments awarded among 7,280 military prisoners was 2,586, the following year they were still fewer, namely 1,447, and even in 1865 they were only 1,783. In 1870 the total had increased to 3,630 (of which three were flogged); in 1871, (*a red letter year we suppose in the military prison annals, the number in association having been reduced from* 534 *in* 1870, *to* 51) the total number went up with a bound to 6,561 (thirteen flogged), in 1872 a further increase of 1000, and it has remained about that ever since. The great difficulty in getting at anything like reliable in

formation from these Reports is in consequence of the loose way in which they are drawn up. Table 8, if the figures in it mean anything, show that a certain number of men received amongst them 7,038 punishments. Yet Table 7, immediately above distinctly gives the number flogged twenty, awarded "Dark Cells" 216, "Light Cells" 606, put in irons two, minor punishments 5,646, the total being 6,490 or 548 less than the number above on the following Table. But the more we examine the figures of this Report the more we are astonished. The Return of Punishments (Table 2) informs us that during 1877, the number of sentences by courts-martial were 10,724, while Table 4 as distinctly states the total number of "Crimes and Sentences" in 1877 to be 5,232. When we turn in dismay from those two tables and try to verify one of them by Table 9, which gives 4,969 as the aggregate number in prison for the year, we are at a geater loss than ever, and begin to wish that Colonel Du Cane had in a short preface informed "Both Houses of Parliament" by which system of arithmetic these figures are produced. We believe Mr. Oliver Byrne has a system which he terms "Dual Arithmetic," and that by it figures acquire extraordinary powers. If Mr. Byrne's figures can be made to perform more wonderful feats than Colonel Du Cane's are made to do in the 1877 Report, then they are very extraordinary figures indeed.

We now come to the number of crimes and previous convictions, when we are informed that during 1877 one man had been previously convicted twelve times, another eleven times, five ten times, three nine times, nine eight times, twenty-seven seven times, thirty-nine six times, eighty-five five times, 171 four times, 258 three times, 491 twice, and 842 once, while of these 834 had previously been tried for the same offence. The number of men tried for absence without leave, was 479; for breaking out of barracks, 352; for desertion 1,904; for drunkenness, 892; for disgraceful conduct, 261; for insubordination, 649; and for other offences not included in the foregoing, 695. These figures are not at all satisfactory, but when we investigate the matter of education we have still more reason to feel dissatisfied. The yearly charge to the country for army chaplains, army schoolmasters, for books, &c., amounts to a very large sum, while this is all supplemented by the Scripture Readers provided by benevolent societies. It has at the same time become more incumbent on commanding officers to have those under them taught to read and write, as men who cannot do so are quite unable to receive with any benefit the necessary instruction given them at rifle drill, scouting, and in the duty of outposts. A Martini-Henry rifle in the hands of an ignorant man would probably be as dangerous to his friends as his foes, while most that was told him about his duties when on vedette might as well be addressed to a post. And when we at the same time remember that each prison has one or two schoolmasters, whose duty it is to teach,

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the small decrease, since 1870, in the uneducated men is all the more remarkable. The number of prisoners who could not write in 1870 was 611; in 1871, 846; in 1872, 851; in 1873, 634; 1874, 759; in 1875, 723; in 1876, 579; and in 1877, 644. To understand the above properly, it should be borne in mind that in the service if a man can only sign his accounts, he is put down as able to write; it is however unnecessary in the face of such facts to make further comments on the hollowness of the system of Education in the Army.

The extracts from the Reports made by the governors of the different prisons are both meagre and uninteresting, while even the Chaplain of Millbank has no "special remarks to make on the present occasion with regard to the military prisoners." The Governor of Cork prison notices an increase in the crimes of desertion and insubordination; at Dublin (which was closed a great portion of the year) the conduct of the prisoners is stated to have been "very satisfactory," while the Report from Gosport on the same point "is good." At Limerick, it appears a change in chief warders has been made, where the new broom takes the opportunity of saying some unfavourable words of the old one. From this account insubordination was rampant, and in order "to raise the discipline to a higher standard," eight men were flogged, and we presume a much greater number punished in other ways. As Limerick has only accommodation for eighty-two prisoners, and all in solitary confinement, while during the year 1876, there was distributed there among 311 prisoners 349 punishments, namely sixty-seven dark cell, twenty-eight light cell, and 254 minor punishments, we certainly do not quite understand how the discipline of the prison, from the prison authorities' point of view, could have been, under the former chief warder, in the "lax state," the present one describes it to have been. We shall wait for the 1878 Report with some interest to see how the new broom continues in his work, and whether he has been obliged since to continue *raising "the discipline to a higher standard,"* by the same means as he adopted in 1877.

The extraordinary part of this far from pleasant subject is, that while the harshest means continue to be employed with soldier prisoners; the criminals of civil life are treated apparently upon another system. When a burglar or pickpocket is sentenced to three years' imprisonment, he knows that that means, provided he behaves himself while in confinement, an incarceration of two years and a-half. In like manner a sentence of five years may be reduced to four, and if six to twelve years is the sentence, a deduction of one-fourth is made. Now no such privilege for good conduct falls to the soldier's share. Occasionally, when the military and other prisons are full, and accommodation for more unavailable, then a merit is made of necessity, and a few soldiers from time to time have a portion of their sentences remitted. But why should not a soldier, when awarded twelvemonths imprisonment, be enabled to reduce it

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by good conduct to ten or to nine months? Surely if the system works well with civilian criminals, it should be quite as efficacious with military offenders. Again, civilian convicts are employed in profitable work which allows them, if they are at all industrious, to earn gratuities from one shilling to half-a-crown weekly. At least the latter sum could be earned in the Irish prisons, under Captain Crofton's system, a system which being based upon cultivating the good qualities in human nature might be studied with advantage by the Military prison directors.

The present system of treating our soldier prisoners is, as will be seen from this paper, a far from satisfactory one. In 1846, on the recommendation of Lord Cathcart's Commission, Military prisons were established, with the view of keeping soldiers, who as a rule commit but trifling crimes, apart from the hardened offenders usually to be met with in civil prisons. It was feared that soldiers might be contaminated; and now, after an interval of thirty-two years, we are going back to the old method. Aylesbury and thirteen other county prisons are now used for Military prison purposes, and unless some change for the better is made in our treatment of soldier prisoners, more accommodation still will be needed for them. Desertion, despite the superior pay, lodging and food soldiers now receive, is not decreasing, as a reference to the "Police Gazette" for 1877 has informed us. In that year, 7,759 men deserted from the army and 4,059 from the militia, or 11,816 in all absent from their regiments without leave. And the remedy for all this, by the Inspector-General of Prisons, are two suggestions for more prison accommodation, to take the shape, firstly of enlarged "provost prisons in the principal districts and garrisons to enable them to hold all prisoners of three months sentences and under," and, secondly, a large central Military prison to hold prisoners under sentences of two years and over. As the prisoners sentenced to three months and under numbered 3,187 in 1877, or upwards of three-fifths of the 5,232 that in that year were imprisoned, we wonder what Colonel Du Cane thinks is to be done with the six Military prisons now in existence? If the garrison and district provosts are to be enlarged, make them large enough to receive all military prisoners belonging to the towns and districts. Then send men with sentences of over two years to civil jails, and do away with the Military prisons altogether.

The question as to whether crime is not, in many cases, a disease in the army, is one never thought worth investigating by the Military authorities. Yet it is well known that soldiers have been tried, convicted and punished more than once, 'ere it was discovered the men were hopelessly insane. Some years ago a man went mad on the line of march, and galloped away on his horse in a contrary direction to that in which his regiment was going. The man was confined for being drunk, and the corporal in charge of the

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man's billet was tried by court-martial and reduced to the ranks for permitting him to get drunk. The man got madder and madder, and so was not tried for drunkenness, but sent to Chatham, and from there to a lunatic asylum, but the corporal was never reinstated, although the very facts we have named proved his innocence. Had the man not subsequently displayed such strong proofs of insanity, he would have been tried for being drunk on the line of march, and doubtless flogged for what was his misfortune, not his fault.

Besides who are the men, that if war was declared to-morrow, upon whom the country would have to rely? Certainly not what is termed the best characters; the officers' servants, the orderlies, and other men excused duty on one pretence or another; fellows who shirk the sentry-box as they would an infected room, and who would sooner swallow a dose of salts and senna than go to parade. On the outbreak of hostilities they go to hospital, and the men who march to battle are mostly those for whom Colonel Du Cane has no other words than what means increased severity, for he does not seem to be struck by the fact that all his recommendations only amounts to that there should be more punishment. After reading a Report upon Military Prisons, one is lost in astonishment that common sense should be so very uncommon to the official mind in this year of grace 1878.

NOTES ON THE HISTORY AND SERVICES OF THE EIGHTY-SIXTH REGIMENT OF FOOT (*Continued.*)

On August 28, 1801, the Indian Army, under General Baird, embarked on the Nile, in native boats, *en route* for Alexandria. A detachment of the 86th was left at Ghiza; another detachment with some Sepoys, under command of Colonel Lloyd, had previously been sent to occupy Damietta.

Alexandria surrendered on the 1st of September, and the Indian contingent was in consequence stopped at Rosetta, where it encamped, subsequently shifting its camp to El Hamed, five miles away. On the 27th of October the 86th was ordered back to Ghiza, to support Colonel Ramsay there, difficulties threatening with the Turkish authorities in Cairo, owing to the attempted treachery of the latter towards the Mamelukes. Captain Middlemore, of the grenadiers 86th, with a sergeant and twelve men of his company, accompanied Colonel Montresor in his mission to the Capitan Pasha in connection with the same matter.

Subsequently, the regiment, with the detachment which had been recalled from Damietta, appears to have been stationed at Thiza or This, near Abydos, and afterwards again at Ghiza. Sir James Macgrigor, who was principal medical officer of the Indian

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contingent, states that the 86th had not been particularly healthy before leaving India,* and several cases of small-pox and fever had occurred during the voyage up the Red Sea; but they landed in a healthy state at Cosseir, and in spite of the heat and the arduous character of the march across the desert, they continued healthy until they went into camp on the Isle of Rhonda. "They had no spirits," he adds, "owing to the difficulty of carrying it, and I am convinced that from this not only did they not suffer, but that it even contributed to the uncommon degree of health they at this time enjoyed."†

At Rhonda and Ghiza they suffered very severely from opthalmia, in connection with which the name of Ensign John Paton, of the regiment, deserves honourable record. Having previously studied for the medical profession, he volunteered his services in the hospitals at Ghiza, when the number of medical officers proved insufficient, and there contracted opthalmia in a very severe form, which after months of suffering resulted in the loss of one eye. He was the only officer in the Indian contingent who suffered loss of sight, although many were attacked. As in the case of the opthalmia, which has proved so intractable amongst the troops at the opposite extremity of the continent, the Egyptian disease appears to have been less severe among the officers, and to have exhibited a marked partiality to particular companies and particular tents.

In the spring of 1802, it became necessary to take steps to send the Indian troops home, as not only were their services no longer needed in Egypt, but the demurrage on the vessels which had brought them and had been detained at Suez, amounting to £40,000 per month, was a serious tax upon the East India Company. Accordingly, on March 3, 1802, the Indian contingent, with the exception of the 10th, 61st, and 88th Regiments ordered home—a change, we are told by no means welcomed by the corps in question—began its return march from Alexandria and Rosetta to Ghiza.

At Ghiza the 86th was joined by a draft of 207 men from the 20th, 35th, 48th, and 63rd Regiments at Malta, consisting of men enlisted for limited service in Europe only, who had been allowed to extend their engagements to unlimited service in corps on the Indian Establishment. The draft was under the command of Major Torrens, Surrey Fencible Infantry (afterwards Major-General Sir Henry Torrens, Adjutant-General Horse-Guards) a young officer who had served with particular dictinction in the West Indies and Holland, and had since been in command of

* It is incidentally mentioned that at Colaba, near Bombay, where the regiment was some time in barracks, there were as many as 300 men in hospital at one time with guinea-worm.

† MacGrigor's "Medical Notes on Expedition to Egypt.

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Pollen's or the "Loyal Surrey" Fencibles in Nova Scotia.* Under command of Major Torrens the regiment left Ghiza in the month of May, crossed the desert to Suez in a three days' march unmarked by any special incident, and encamped at Ain Moosa or the Wells of Moses, a few miles from that place. Some cases of plague here occurring amongst the native troops, the precaution was taken of again burning all the clothing, blankets, &c., before embarkation. Bombay was reached after an unventful voyage on July 4, 1802, and MacGrigor records that the condition of the 86th Regiment, together with that of the 1st Bombay Regiment, the artillery and commissariat, was so "uncommonly healthy" that it was thought unnecessary to keep them in quarantine.

Out of 405 of all ranks the 86th embarked at Bombay for Egypt, there had been thirty-four deaths, *viz.*, two from plague, two fever, eight hepatitis, twenty dysentery, and two other causes; twenty-three men had also been invalided. For its services during the above period, the regiment subsequently received the Royal permission to bear "the Sphynx," with the word "Egypt" on its colours and appointments, and the officers in common, with those of the other regiments in the Army, were authorized to accept and wear the medal granted by the Sultan of Turkey, a small gold medal suspended by a dark orange ribbon.

Soon after the departure of the regimental head-quarters for Egypt, one of the four companies left behind at Bombay had been sent again to Surat. Two others followed in November, 1801, returning to Bombay in February, 1802. In March, they were once more sent back to Guzerat, and together with the company from Surat, joined a force consisting of portions of Her Majesty's 75th and 84th Regiments, some native infantry and artillery, which had been collected at Cambay, under command of Sir William Clarke, owing to the hostile attitude of certain native chiefs in that neighbourhood. Part of the 86th was engaged in a gallant but unsuccessful effort to surprise the Mahratta fort of Kareah, 120 miles distant from Cambay, on the night of March 17, 1802, in which Lieutenant W. Purcell Creagh and several men of the regiment were killed.

In consequence of this repulse, a fresh force, including three companies of 86th, was despatched from Cambay, which, on the 30th April, routed the enemy's forces drawn up in front of Kareah, and captured the town. The siege of the fort was then commenced, but when the batteries opened fire the garrison surrendered. The chief, Mulhar Rao, was sent prisoner to Bombay. Leaving a garrison in the fort, the force then marched to Surat, a distance of 170 miles, capturing Tarapore and other small places on their way. They reached Surat on June 12, 1802, whence the 86th companies returned to Bombay, where after the arrival of

* It may be observed that at this time the regiment appears to have been chiefly recruited in England, having standing recruiting parties at Manchester, Shrewsbury, &c.

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the head-quarters from Egypt in July, the regiment was once more united. But its stay at the Presidency was brief. In November, 1802, the services of the regiment were again put in requisition in the western districts. A short time previously the Government of Baroda had devolved on Anund Rao, a prince of weak intellect. The administration was usurped by his illegitimate brother, Canojee Rao, but the latter was speedily ejected by Ranajee, the Minister of the deceased Guickwar, who applied to the British Government for aid. In consequence, a Convention was concluded on March 15, 1802, between the Bombay Government and Ranajee on behalf of Anund Rao, by which Baroda was to be recognized as a substantive state, the Guickwar agreeing to receive a subsidiary force, and to disband his Arab mercenaries. But the latter, who had long ruled at Baroda, were not disposed to accept this arrangement; they placed the Guickwar in confinement and allowed Canojee Rao to escape, declaring their intention of holding out until all their demands were satisfied.*

A British force was therefore collected under Colonel Woodington, and the 86th who had quitted Bombay in the middle of November and landed at Cambay, rendezvoused with other corps before Baroda on the 3rd December, 1802.

On the 18th of December the British, leaving their tents standing, attacked the enemy, who were in strong force before the town. In the engagement which ensued the garrison made a vigorous sally, but the enemy were routed with great slaughter and the loss of several standards and many prisoners. Ground was broken during the night, and on the 21st of December the batteries opened. An outwork, defended by a body of Arabs, was carried by the flank companies of the 86th. The defenders fought with great desperation, refusing quarter, and nearly to a man were killed. On the fourth day the breach was declared practicable, and the storming-parties were told off for the assault, but the fort surrendered. The 86th had seven killed and twenty-three wounded in these operations. Captain John Grant, 86th, is recorded as having specially distinguished himself.

On the 3rd of February, 1803, a force, including three companies of the 86th under Captain Richardson, was despatched from Baroda, under the orders of Major Holmes, Bombay Army, in pursuit of Canojee Rao, who had again taken the field with a large following. On the 6th of February, while in quest of the enemy, the advance of H.M.'s 75th was attacked in a defile and suffered severely, besides losing a gun. The day was, however, retrieved by a determined charge of three companies of the 86th, who came to the rescue, and drove the enemy across the bed of the river into the jungle, where they dispersed, leaving all their *impedimenta* and the captured gun behind them. The same day five more companies of the 86th left Baroda to reinforce Major Holmes, two others remaining behind in garrison.

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* Thornton's "History of India."

On the 25th of February, the fort of Karella was captured. On the 1st of March, when near Copperbund, Major Holmes received information that Canojee's force was in the vicinity. Exhausted as they were by repeated forced marches, the troops by extraordinary exertions came up with the enemy in the act of crossing a river, and fell on them with vigour. But the Mahrattas being nearly all horse, and the British all foot, for the Mahratta allied horse gave little aid, the enemy escaped. Canojee's forces were now nearly dispersed, and the 86th obtained repose for a few weeks, during which the eight companies in the field formed part of a force encamped in front of the Guickwar's residence at Brodera, on the banks of the Nerbudda.

In May, 1803, the troops marched against the fort of Keirah, which surrendered. From Keirah they moved to Neriad, where the two companies which had been left behind at Baroda joined. The setting in of the rains precluded the carrying out of any general plan of operations, but several smart affairs occurred, in which the regiment displayed its usual spirit.

Information having been received that a body of Mahrattas was pillaging about thirty miles distant from the camp, Captain Grant performed a forced march with four companies of the 86th and some native infantry. Coming up with the enemy at night, he attacked them, inflicting heavy loss and capturing many prisoners and some horses. Again, a body of Canojee's troops threatening to cross the river about fifteen miles above Bareach, 400 of the 86th, a battalion of Sepoys and two guns, under Captain Richardson, 86th, started in heavy rain in pursuit of them. The gun-bullocks failed, and the country being inundated, the soldiers had to drag the guns in water reaching up to their waists, but by extraordinary efforts they gained the banks of the river on the 16th of July. Attacking a body of Canojee's troops which had not long crossed, they routed them and drove them into the river, where many lost their lives. The river having fallen considerably during the night, the troops crossed on the following day, attacked the breast-works of the main body and carried them at the point of the bayonet, driving the defenders out with great slaughter, and pursuing them a distance of ten miles. A body of Arabs disdaining flight, fought with desperation until destroyed. After this affair the detachment returned to Baroda.

The Marquis of Wellesley was at this time making vigorous efforts to break up the great Mahratta Confederacy, and in accordance with a plan of operations against Holkar, suggested by General Wellesley, a force under Colonel Woodington was despatched from Baroda against the fortress of Broach. The 86th formed part of this force, which arrived in front of Broach on the 23rd of August. On the road, the 86th baggage-guard was attacked and destroyed, and the regimental baggage plundered.

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Ground was broken in regular form against the place, and on the 29th of August—the day on which the Bengal Army, under Lord Lake, entered Mahratta territory—the breach was declared practicable. At one a.m. the storming-parties assembled in the streets of the town, under command of Major Cuyler, 86th, the precaution having been taken of fixing the bayonets on with a wedge of cotton cloth, to prevent the Arab swordsmen wrenching them off in hand to hand fight. At three a.m. the signal was given for the attack, and the forlorn-hope, consisting of Serg. John Moore and twelve volunteers of the 86th, followed by 100 of the 86th and 100 Sepoy Grenadiers, under Capt. Richardson, with a support of 300 of the 86th, under Major Cuyler, moved off to the assault. Crossing the ditch knee-deep in mud, and climbing the long steep slope of the breach, they met the defenders, who made a desperate resistance, and a hard hand to hand fight ensued, in which many gallant deeds were done. Captain MacLaurin, who evinced great ardour, was wounded and taken prisoner, but rescued by Private John Brierley; Captains Richardson and Grant distinguished themselves by their gallantry; and Sergeant John Bills was "conspicuous by the heroic courage with which he fought." At length British pluck triumphed and the breach was won. The stormers crowned the rampart; the Mahratta flag was torn down by the leader of the forlorn-hope, Sergeant Moore, and the colours of the 86th planted in its stead.

Having overpowered all resistance in the breach, Captain Richardson's party swept round the works to the Cuttoopore gate, while Major Cuyler led his detachment at a run to the Jaraseer gate, firing at the enemy who were escaping that way. Throwing down their matchlocks and drawing their swords, the Arabs rushed on the assailants, and a hand to hand fight ensued. But the contest was short; in a few minutes two hundred of the enemy, horse and foot, lay dead, and the 86th stood masters of the ground. Amongst the trophies of the day were fifteen Mahratta standards, ten of which were retained as memorials by the regiment and the rest sent to headquarters.

In his despatch Colonel Woodington highly commends the conduct of Major Cuyler and Captain Richardson, adding:—"The whole of the officers and men employed on this service have conducted themselves so much to my satisfaction, that I cannot express myself too strongly in their commendation."

The Governor-General in Council also issued the following order:—"The Governor-General in Council desires to express his particular approbation of the valour and judgment displayed by Major Cuyler, H.M.'s 86th, throughout the service at B(a)roach, and in commanding the storming of the fort, and by Captain Richardson of the same corps in leading the assault. His Excellency in Council also observes with particular satisfaction the conduct of Captain Cliffe, of the Engineers of Bombay. To all the

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officers and troops, European and Native, employed on this honourable occasion His Excellency in Council signifies his high commendation."

The regimental loss consisted of one officer (Captain Semple), two sergeants, and ten rank and file killed, and three officers, (Major Cuyler and Captains Richardson and McLauchlin,) and twenty-three non-commissioned officers and rank and file wounded. Sergeant Bills was promoted to sergeant-major, Sergeant John Moore received a donation of 500 rupees, and Private John Brierley was promoted to corporal and subsequently to sergeant.*

From Broach, the regiment retnrned to Baroda.

(*To be continued.*)

A NIGHT'S ADVENTURE.

About thirty years ago the Service involved nothing utb "straight-forward soldiering," as an old non-purchase lieutenant used to say, who had a contempt for arms of precision. Battalions in those days were commanded by the colonel and adjutant, the majors cutting in for command when the chief went on leave; the captains and lieutenants were encouraged to amuse themselves in society and with field sports; this policy was ardently followed by our Colonel, who was delighted if his officers were in good society, although he seldom left the barracks. If he saw in the papers that Lieutenant So-and-so was at Lady Hautpas garden-party at Chiswick, that sub was sure of liberal leave on all occasions.

On one occasion some of us hired a yacht, which we anchored opposite the Chief's windows, in order that he might ask at mess whose yacht it was, the bait used to take, and the temporary owners obtained unlimited leave! At mess one night he said to me,

"Instead of taking your fortnight's leave in London, why not this Autumn take a walking tour in beautiful Switzerland."

To hear was to obey! so accompanied by a brother Sub, Charley S——, off I went, and after the usual journey through France found ourselves really enjoying the scenery, the change, the good spirits and appetite which exercise in mountain air invariably entails. "Five minutes more, Charley, and then my turn for the bag."

This I said to my friend Charley S——, as we walked along one August afternoon over one of the lesser passes of Switzerland. Although on a walking tour, we had a strong objection to the regulation knapsack, which gives one the unmistakable stamp of

* The foregoing details are given on the authority of Mr. Cannon's "Historical Records." The compiler has been unable to find any muster-roll of the regiment between 1799 and December, 1806. In a roll dated Agoada near Goa, January, 1807, and in those of several subsequent years, the name of Bills does not appear. The names of John Moore and John *Brearley* appear among the sergeants, the latter of whom attained the rank of regimental quarter-master-sergeant about the time the regiment returned home.

the tourist proper, so preferred carrying a small bag, containing our change of apparel, easy shoes, and other little comforts, wherewith to make ourselves presentable at the *table-d'hôte* in the evening, and where we always managed to arrive in good time.

But to proceed. We had reached the summit, and were gazing down a long valley, lit up by the rays of the setting sun, and besides admiring the beauty of the scene, were anxious to pick out the village of A——, where we intended to pass the night, and which we had been told was visible from this point. We soon made it out, lying considerably on our left, whilst the road on which we travelled, and which was remarkably good, with a strong stone parapet on the outside, wound down the mountain to the right, eventually debouching at the head of the valley, from whence we could see it, like a thread, running straight for A——.

"Nothing for it, Charley, but to follow the road," said I; "but let us have a pipe first, it is such a jolly evening, and we have plenty of time to reach A—— before dinner."

"Talking of dinner," said my friend, with a yawn, "I wonder what kind of a meal they will give us down there, it looks a precious small place, and you know we were warned the hotel was not up to much, only used *en passant*, as it were."

"Well," I answered, "if my appetite remains, to say nothing of increasing, the same as at present, it will have to be a very tough filet, and a very old poulet, that I shall not be able to give a very good account of, and anyhow, it is only for one night."

Thus chatting, we had made considerable progress down the pass, when, "Holloa, what's this?" from Charley, made me look round, and I saw him examining a small opening in the parapet, which upon inspection proved to be a flight of steps, leading apparently on to the mountain side, but a nearer view showed a small foot-path, which pointed directly to our destination.

"Never mind that," cried Charley, as he saw me trying to make out a green board on a rather high post, "we have our line of country, so have nothing to do but go straight."

"It seemed to be in two or three languages," I answered, "but I had not time to make it out."

"No matter."

"Bon soir, bon soir, old gentleman," we called out, in answer to a peasant who was raking together the short grass which had been cut between the rocks, and who had shouted something to us which we could not make out. "Wonder what he was talking about, he seemed very energetic."

After about half an hour more we began to approach the village. The main road ran almost parallel with us on our right, and it was evident that we should enter the town by a bye street, which street converged till it almost seemed as if there ought to be a gate, so narrow was it, and then opened into a diminutive square, or more properly triangle, through which the main road passed.

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As the distance decreased we perceived this square, as I shall call it, filled with men, and a very rough lot they looked, clad for the most part in blouses, open at the throat, and showing their tangled, unkempt beards, their nether garments were of the roughest, and altogether their general appearance was of the most unpreposessing kind. But what struck us most was that they were all armed, some with scythes, others with hooks, bludgeons, stones, and many carried long knives in their hands.

"What can all this mean?" I said, as the gentleman were evidently awaiting our advent.

"Looks like a fight," exclaimed Charley, "but how can it have anything to do with us?"

We were not left long in doubt on this point, for no sooner had we entered the square than we were seized on all sides, and hustled and pushed about, the aforesaid knives coming in close proximity with our faces; the language, a kind of patois, a perfect Babel round us, and for a moment all was confusion

Presently the pushing took a more decided form, and following the many uplifted arms, there I saw fastened to the wall a similar green board to the one I had so hurriedly glanced at on our way down. There it was, but to read it was quite another thing, in that pushing, shouting, savage-looking mob. It gave one a small idea of what Paris must have been in the days of Louis XVI.

Charley called out, "Make for the hotel," and after great exertion, the mob, as it were, carried us to the small house which boasted that appellation.

Here, with our backs to the door-posts, we felt all right, and began trying to elucidate from our many tormentors the meaning of all this excitement. We asked for the mayor, and he was pointed out to us, a man in a blouse, perhaps not quite so ferocious as the rest, but evidently one who was not going to help us, as he remained standing, hands in pockets, a grin on his face, and his whole manner intimating "you must look out for yourselves."

However, the row did something, it brought the landlord of the hotel, who seemed at a glance to take in the situation.

"Oh, Messieurs, pay them," he cried, with many gesticulations, "please pay them, they will ruin me, ruin my house, please pay them."

"What do they demand?" we asked.

"Forty francs."

"Forty francs! what for?" we exclaimed.

"Messieurs came down the mountain by the short cut, and they claim forty francs, twenty apiece, for crossing their land."

"Nonsense," cried Charley, "don't they wish they may get it," and we tried to push our way into the hotel, and at last succeeded, but with the accompaniment of about a dozen of these wretches.

Here began demands on one side, and resistance on the other,

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but we soon discovered that by showing a bold front much might be done. The fine was now reduced to fifteen francs apiece, but Charley (who was paymaster) still held out, and the wrangle was at its height, when, turning my head, I perceived the form of a young girl, trying to make her way through the crowd. She seemed in great anxiety, and on reaching us, seized our hands and implored us to satisfy the demands of the men. She said our lives were not safe, and that her father's (the landlord) had frequently been threatened if he interfered between his guests and the payment of this, we now found, regular extortion, upon unsuspecting travellers. The curé of the village now appeared upon the scene, and tried to throw oil upon the troubled waters, but to little effect; he asked us to his house, but that was out of the question, and besides would have done no good under the circumstances.

However, as all things come to an end, so, by the advice of an Englishman, who had been staying for some time in the hotel, and who knew the character of the villagers, we eventually drew out a written receipt, which we stated we should send to the Consul at Berne, and handed over the sum of ten francs, which they took with much grumbling and many surly looks. After this the men withdrew, and we were left in peace to set ourselves straight before sitting down to our hurriedly prepared dinner. During this meal the Englishman explained to us that the village of A—— had sprung up almost entirely from the workmen employed in making the fine road and parapet to which I have before referred. Their work had been finished, but they did not care to leave, so led a desultory kind of life. One, who must have saved some money, had bought up the fields through which we had passed, and I need hardly say, made more by his extortionate demands on strangers than from his crops. *Hinc illæ lacrymæ!*

We spent the evening over our pipes and map, discussing tomorrow's route, and talking of the events of the day. Just as we were knocking the ashes from our pipes, previous to retiring, the door opened, and the landlord and his daughter again appeared, the latter certainly calmer than at our first meeting, but still with anxious look about the eyes, and a frequent turning of the head towards the door, which indicated that all was not yet right in that direction.

The landlord explained his intrusion in this wise: His daughter, whilst sitting in their back-room, had heard some of our previous friends, who had evidently expended some of the ten francs in something stronger than water, wrangling amongst themselves as to the smallness of the fine, and threats as to what they would do if they could catch us again. The landlord (we thought what a comfortable life he must lead) evidently had some faith in their drunken discourse, and came to us to assist him in the dilemma. He proposed that we should retire to our room, which would pre-

vent any chance meeting between ourselves and the villagers, and also give him an excuse for turning the revellers out, and closing his house for the night.

To this we agreed, and mounting the stairs, soon found ourselves in a neat, double-bedded room, clean and airy, with one large window opposite the door. As the landlord still hesitated, Charley asked him if there was anything else he would like to suggest.

"At what hour would Messieurs start in the morning?"

"Oh, early," answered Charley, sitting down on the side of one of the beds, and wondering what was coming next.

Instead of reply, the landlord walked to the window, opened it, looked out, and beckoned us to approach. The window was, about ten feet from the ground, and looked on to the hills.

"If I might venture to suggest," said the landlord, "and Messieurs would not mind the descent, I would propose that they left by this window in the morning, and took the back of the town instead of passing through the street, it would be easy there to rejoin the main road."

To this proposal, which certainly took us rather aback, we eventually consented, and having settled the bill, were left alone to talk of the strange locality into which our travels had brought us. We, however, did not talk very long, as both were tired, having had a long day, so, placing the table and chairs against the door as a temporary barricade, were soon sound asleep. The sun peeping into our room awoke me, and looking at my watch I found it was a quarter to five.

"Tumble up, Charley," I cried, "and let us try this drop-fence it does not look much in the morning."

Charley muttered something about wishing "drop fences" and "windows" somewhere else, but at last consented to dress himself.

"Toss for first go," cried he, which we accordingly did; "heads I go first, tails you do." Up went the coin, and came down heads.

"All right, here goes," said Charley, as he swung himself out of the window, and was soon hanging by his arms; a moment later I heard a thud, and Charley was on *terra firma*.

I was in the act of following him, and was already sitting on the window-ledge, preparatory to dropping, when he called out, "The bag, man, the bag;" and lucky enough he did, for had I dropped, we and our worldly goods would have been considerably separated.

After I was safely landed with the bag, it took us but little time to clear two or three walls, and with a detour of about half a mile we made the high road, and walked briskly in the bright morning sun, enjoying the early freshness of the air, and thanking the landlord as the cause of our early rising.

We saw no more of our friends of the previous night, and about eight a.m. reached our first stopping-place for the day. Here a good breakfast of cutlets and *café-au-lait* was soon placed before

us, to which, dear reader, you may be sure we did ample justice after our Night's Adventure.

We heard afterwards that a similar adventure had befallen some tourists, which ended in disastrous consequences, so we considered ourselves fortunate we had got off so easily. On our return we had a good story to tell the Colonel at mess, and which may tend to prevent others from attempting short cuts.

MILITARY SKETCHING AND RECONNAISSANCE.*

This, the advanced guard, as we may term it, of a series of "Military Handbooks," tells very plainly how the wind is blowing now, in respect to the requisite amount of knowledge and acquirements necessary for the British officer to possess. Formerly, which means only some twelve or fifteen years since, the officers, in the majority of regiments, able to go and make a sketch of a new part of country might easily be counted on the fingers of one hand; signifying it was only about one officer in five who practically understood this important portion of reconnaissance. At present it would be a difficult matter, we believe, to find in any corps one officer incapable of draughting out a sketch of any portion of country he was ordered to reconnoitre. As Colonel Brackenbury informs us in the preface, there were other difficulties officers had to contend with. The books, intended to instruct in "Military Sketching," were as a rule more suitable for "surveyors and map-makers than for practical sketches in the field." Again, while "a whole library of books might be found to tell by what great fault the Prussians lost the Battle of Kollin, or by what wisdom won that of Koniggrätz, there was no work in existence explaining to an English lieutenant how he should lead his handful of men to the best advantage; or even to a colonel how to disperse his battalion so as to deserve success, if not to command it."

It was through being "strongly impressed by the lack of real elementary books," that led the Editor to appeal "to certain garrison-instructors to assist him in supplying the want, which was felt, not only by students, but by the instructors themselves." It is needless to say that any call for special work, when the good purpose of it is clear, meets with a ready response from English officers, of which no better proof could exist than the book now before us. Commencing with a brief outline of the object of Military Sketching, the author proceeds to describe how the prismatic compass is used, the measurement of distances, and the system generally of transferring to paper a rough map of the ground surveyed. Section 6 is devoted to "triangulation," and

* Military Sketching and Reconnaissance," by Lieutenant-Colonel F. G. Hutchison and Captain H. G. Macgregor, Edited by Lieutenant-Colonel C. B. Brackenbury, R.A., A.A.G. London, C. Kegan Paul & Co. 1878.

in this, as well as the sections upon "traversing," "field-book sketching," &c., everything valuable for the Military student to understand, is described in the plainest of language, and in the pleasantest of styles, so that it is as intelligible to the dullest as to the brightest intellect, while the amount of information given is really wonderful. In fact, the first portion of the book, some seventy pages of print, contains the essence of a score of huge works upon land surveying, and through which Military students of the past had to wearily wade; the result in all cases being never equivalent to the trouble each was obliged to devote to the matter.

The important subject of Reconnaissance, the means by which the whereabouts of the enemy, and the description of country he occupies, is ascertained, forms the second portion of the book. Commencing with "topographical" and road reconnaissance, and how a report of either should be drawn up, the remaining sections, save one, are devoted to exhaustively describing how different reconnaissances ought to be made. The whole is wound up by a "course of field-sketching and reconnaissance of ground for non-commissioned officers of infantry, cavalry and artillery." The second portion is, we need scarcely add, quite as full of information as the first, while the fifteen plates at the end are models of what such illustrations should be, being neat, and in every detail thoroughly clear and practical.

The great merit of works of this kind is, that they at once make plain to the uninitiated, matters which would otherwise have been most obscure. The officer of average intelligence, although he might never have sent in a sketch before, would, after a couple of hours quiet perusal of this book, be enabled to start with a clear idea in his head of what he was expected to perform. And this remark will apply equally if he was under similar circumstances called upon to make a reconnaissance with a few men of a line of country in a named direction. Although "this Manual is designed for the use of regimental officers," yet we are confident there are very few non-commissioned officers in the army who will not consider it their duty to have a copy of it. How reconnaissances of the enemy and reconnaissances in force should be conducted are not described here, but will be treated under the head of "Tactics," in another Manual. We may, however, state, that nothing new has been introduced in this work to the readers' notice, the great advantage of the book consisting in the plain concise manner in which the instruction has been given. In short, Part I. explains how a military sketch is made, and Part II. shows how this knowledge for the requirements of war should practically be applied.

The value of reconnoitring in warfare has been an acknowledged fact for generations, and it is doubtful if anything has been added this last twenty years to our knowledge generally of how reconnaissances should be conducted. Their intention has always been to acquire intelligence of the enemy's movements or disposition of

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his troops, to supply the defects of maps, and to gain a knowledge of a country which is to become the theatre of a campaign. A hundred years ago, a war when once began was always supposed, we make use of a theatrical simile, "to run a good many seasons." The troops were paraded and inspected in their cantonments by their commanders in the spring months, when summer, with its fine weather came, then they took the field and began manœuvering against each other. On one side a town would be besieged, on the other some line of retreat would be threatened. When the armies actually came within striking distance, weeks would be passed in marching and counter-marching quite close to one another, each, as it were, waiting for his opponent to begin the fray. Sometimes a battle would be fought during the campaign, when both sides would claim a victory, and on the approach of winter, the armies on either side would withdraw respectively into winter quarters. When this had been done for four or five years in succession, and one side had become bankrupt, peace would be made, and the soldiers who composed the armies disbanded and sent to their homes.

That we have not in the previous paragraph made a rash or ridiculous statement, we must refer our readers to the "Annual Register of 1778" for its authenticity. Frederick the Great was then at war with Austria; and the Register referring to the inactivity of the great armies during the summer of that year, does not hesitate to allege that they felt such mutual awe of each other as to evince "that an equal distribution of force, talents, military skill, discipline and courage, may produce the same effects which usually proceed from weakness, want of spirit, defect in ability, and inexperience in war."

The reconnoitring of that period we should state was usually performed by large bodies of troops, which driving in the enemy's advanced posts, would cause him to deploy his army in full force to repel what might be considered a dangerous attack upon his position. When the attacking general succeeded in making his opponent thus show his hand, his object was attained, and the order to retire would be given. An old writer then tells us:

"This possibility of surprising small posts and advanced guards may certainly be discovered by a patrol of a few men, and even in the night. But when we would put the information of deserters or spies, with a quarter or a main post, to the test, and would discover whether it be true or not, then it becomes absolutely necessary that we shall have a strong escort, which will not only have the effect of attaining our object, but also that of concealing from the enemy what that object is."

This author goes on to say that when a strong force is used the enemy's troops at once fall back without offering resistance, so that your object is to a certain extent gained without any corresponding loss. He also recommends that the reconnoissance should be made

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by several bodies of troops at the same time on different points, having with each "persons whose dress shall mark distinction, and who shall appear surrounded with a suite of attendants." From the foregoing it appears to have been the custom then to have sham generals and sham staffs, a plan which would certainly be likely to mislead the enemy, as well as to draw upon the sham commander and his body guard, a considerable fire.

Military sketching, however, does not appear to have been held, during the last century, in the estimation it deserved. "If time and circumstance will permit," the writer we have previously quoted from states, "it is certainly very advisable to take a quick sketch in drawing of such things as ought to be remembered, from any extensive view which offers, rather than trust the memory with so many objects as may occur in a large stretch of country."

That they did use small patrols in the British Army, and advantageously a hundred years ago, the following incident will prove, being alike a record of excellent pluck and rare strategy in a corporal and party of dragoons during the American War of 1778. "Corporal Elton of the 16th Regiment of Light Dragoons with six dragoons under his command, was sent by General Howe from Brandewine to the head of Elke, carrying to Lord Howe intelligence of the victory that had been obtained. Elton and his party duly arrived where the fleet lay, and having sent his despatch on board he began his march homewards. Having nearly one hundred miles to traverse, the greater part of which was in presence of the enemy, it is not surprising that he found himself before long among a line of American troops escorting a convoy of provisions, &c. He had previously taken the precaution to make his party turn their jackets inside out, by which their uniform became white turned up with blue; this being the same as that of Washington's dragoons. Riding up without hesitation to the line of baggage, and seeing the name of Colonel Brown written upon the tilt of one of the waggons, he called out to the men "that Colonel Brown had sent him to give them orders to drive quicker, and passed safely along from the rear to the front of the column, calling to the men as he passed, to keep up." He performed the duty he had been despatched upon in an incredible short time, bringing every man and horse back with him to Philadelphia uninjured.

We could give other instances of what was done by daring dragoons in those days; we might relate how Dennis O'Lavoney to whose memory Lord Rawdon afterwaads erected a monument in Dublin, saved the despatches he had been entrusted to deliver; but we have told enough to show that in 1778 as in 1878, British dragoons did their duty honestly, gallantly, and to the best of their ability. The book we noticed at the beginning of this paper will be no hindrance to their further progress in the knowledge of all that is desirable for them to know, but will on the contrary help to the further development of the bravery and intelligence they have inherited from their ancestors.

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PROMOTIONS AND APPOINTMENTS.

NAVY.

Admiralty, Sept. 20.

The following promotion has been this day made:—Sub Lieut. H. N. White-Thomson to be lieut. in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of Sept. 12.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Lieut. H. K. L. Phillips has been placed on the Retired List of his rank from the 18th inst.

Sep. 24.

Navigating Sub Lieut. E. W. Petley has been promoted to the rank of navigating lieut. in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of July 12,

Sep. 25.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Chap. the Rev. L. Graham has this day been placed on the Retired List.

Sept. 26.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of April 30, 1877, Chief Engineer J. Ward has been placed on the Retired List.

Sept. 27.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, and April 30, 1877, Chief Engineer W. Smiley has been this day placed on the Retired List.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Lieut. J. C. C. Dennis has been this day placed on the retired list from the 24th inst., with permission to assume the rank and title of retired commander.

Sept 28.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Orders in Council of April 30, 1877, Engineer J. Patterson has this day been placed on the Retired List, with permission to assume the rank and title of retired chief engineer from the same date.

Sept. 30.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Admiral Sir G. Elliot, K.C.B., has been this day placed on the Retired List of his rank from the 26th inst., and the following promotions, consequent thereon, have been made from the same date:—Vice-Admiral C. F. Hillyar, C.B., to be admiral in her Majesty's Fleet: Rear-Admiral H. S. Hillyar, C.B., to be vice-admiral in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of Sept. 16, 1877; Captain A. McL. Lyons to be rear-admiral in her Majesty's Fleet.

Consequent on the foregoing, the following promotions, also dating the 26th inst., have taken place on the Retired List:—Vice-Admirals F. B. Montresor, E. Codd, S. Smyth, A. W. Jerningham, to be admirals on the Retired List.

Oct. 4.

The undermentioned Engineers have been promoted to the rank of chief engineers in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority as stated against their names:—E. J. Comley (Sept. 20, 1878); J. Edmonds (Sept. 27, 1878).

Oct. 8.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of April 30, 1877, Engineer J. V. B. Thompson has been placed on the Retired List from the 4th inst.: Engineer J. Jefferies has been promoted to the rank of chief engineer in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of 1st inst.

Oct. 9.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of April 30, 1877, Assist.-Engineer A. S. Barter has been

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placed on the Retired List of his rank from the 4th inst.

Oct. 11.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, and Feb. 4, 1875, Fleet Surg. F. Negus has this day been placed on the Retired List, with authority to assume the rank and title of retired deputy-inspector-general of hospitals and fleets.

Oct. 16.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb 22, 1870, Lieut. S. Pulley has been this day placed on the Retired List of his rank.

Oct. 17.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1877, Com. W. H. Goold has been placed on the Rerired List, with permission to assume the rank and title of retired capt. from the 9th inst.

Oct. 21.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Lieut. F. E. Ramsden has been placed on the Retired List from the 18th inst., with permission to assume the rank and title of retired com. from that date.

Oct. 22.

Acting Lieut. G. G. Philipps to be lieut., with seniority from July 16, having passed the necessary examination at the Royal Naval College.

Admiral—A. Farquhar, to be commander-in-chief at Devonport, vice Sir T. Symonds.

Rear-Admiral—W. M. Dowell, C.B., to be senior officer on the coast of Ireland, vice Hillyar, promoted.

Captains—G. Tryon, C.B., to Monarch, vice Lyons, promoted to flag rank; A. J. Chatfield, to Thunderer, vice Wilson, appointed commodore in Australia; G. D. Morant, to Valorous, vice Boyle, superseded at own request; H. B. Phillimore, C.B., to Belleisle, vice Rowley, period of service expired; A. G. R. Roe, to Flora, additional, for service at Ascension, vice Phillimore; W. H. Whyte, to Royal Adelaide, vice Hopkins, period of service expired; F. W. Richards, to Boadicea, vice Erskine; J. E. Erskine, to Garnet; W. J. Hunt-Grubbe, C.B., to Pembroke, vice Richards: J. F. G. Grant, to Simoom, vice Pasley, invalided.

Staff Commanders-in-Command—G. A. Macfarlane, to Medina, vice Hewlett, time expired; W. H. Fawckner, to Fire Queen, vice Pounds, time expired; F. K. Taylor, to Hercules.

Commanders—E. W. Shirley, to Belleisle; the Hon. A. R. Hewitt, from Duncan, to be inspecting commander of Coastguard at Berwick, vice Goold, retired.

Lieutenants—W. H. M. Dougall, to be flag-lieut. to Vice-Admiral Coote, C.B.; L. A. de Sausmarez, to Malabar; A. H. Loring, E. J. Hill, F. L. Campbell, and W. F. D. Walker, to Royal Naval College, Greenwich, for study; J. M. Caulfeild, to Rapid: C. H. Wright, to Assistance, E. W. Hodgkinson, to be flag-lieut. to Rear-Admiral W. M. Dowell, C.B., Fredk. L. Laurence, to Hibernia, as flag-lieut. to Rear-Admiral Luard, C.B.; A. H. Anson, to Royal Naval College, for study: A. J. Loane. to Valorous; F. A. A. G. Tate, to Raleigh: G. L. B. Bennett, to Defence: T. Y. Greet, to Achilles: C. E. Kingsmill, to Alexandra; S. Ewing, to Warrior: B. E. Maitland, to Danae: T. H. Leventhorpe, to Belleisle: W. B. Fisher, to Implacable; A. C. Corry, F. H. N. Harvey, C. Sherard, F. G. C. Langdon, H. G. W. Thorold, and C. A. F. Walters, to Cambridge (for short course of gunnery); A. H. Anson, and C. E. Gladstone, to Cambridge (additional, for short course of gunnery): G. N. A. Pollard, F. C. M. Noel, J. Casement, and R. E. Berkeley, to Maladar; J. De B. Lopez, to Excellent: R. J. Symonds, to Ruby; W. C. V. Baker, to Penelope; E. P. Ashe, to Hecla; A. H. Coker, to Thunderer C. H. P. Jones, to Boscawen (for gunnery duties); E. D. St. A Ommanney, to Penguin; W. J. W.

Barnard, to Pembroke (additional, for Gannet); H. J. Martin, to Hector; H. J. M. Pugh, to Belleisle (additional, for Coastguard at Newcastle); R. W. O. Voysey, to Duncan; H. E. Bourchier, to Valiant; W. H. Henderson, A. W. E. Prothero, S. B. Roupell, and F. L. Campbell, to Garnet (when commissioned on Oct. 31); A. L. Murray, to Pegasus; E. J. Fleet, to Dragon.

Navigating Lieutenants:—B. St. J. Deane, to Malabar. A. G. Douglas, to Penelope. P. D. Ouless, to London. T. Hawkins-Smith, to Indus, for Hecate.

Sub-Lieutenants—George E. B. Bairnsfather, to Jumna (for navigating duties.) W. B. Fawckner and W. H. H. Montresor, to Himalaya. T. B. H. Cochrane, to Black Prince. E. P. Charrington, S. P. Garde, and C. H. Sandham, to Black Prince; F. J. O. Plumer, to Garnet; A. K. Du Pré, to Garnet.

Midshipmen—F. R. W. Morgan, to Black Prince; E. W. Bruce, to Raleigh.

Chaplains—Rev. E. Ibbetson, acting, to Serapis. Rev. Ben. C. Pidcock, M.A., to Bellerophon; Rev. R. L. Neale, M.A., to Lord Warden; Rev. I. D. Lewis, B.A., to Malabar; Rev. H. W. Millett, to Duncan.

Fleet Surgeon—B. Ninnis, M.D., to Garnet.

Staff Surgeons—J. Buckley and J. P. Courtenay, to President (additional); D. McN. Johnston, M.D., to Malabar.

Surgeons—C. Drake, to Warrior; R. Bentham, to Malabar. F. G. Wright, to Garnet; W. D. Isaac, to Penelope.

Paymasters—W. C. P. Grant, to Pembroke, for Northampton. B. Urwick, to be secretary to Vice-Admiral Robt. Coote, C.B., Commander-in-Chief in China; W. J. C. Row, at present serving as secretary to Admiral Boys, to be secretary to Rear-Admiral Dowell, C.B.; A. W. Brett, to be secretary to Rear-Admiral Boys. H. H. P. Shanks, to Garnet. E. H. Whyte, to Blanche.

Chief Engineers—J. Barber, to Pembroke (for service in Beacon.) W. Bryan and J. Dunlop, to the Royal Naval College, for study. G. Wynhall, to Indus (for Swiftsure.)

ROYAL MARINES.

Admiralty, Sept. 21.

The surname of one of the lieuts. whose appointments were notified in the Gazette of Sept. 20 is Matson, and not Watson, as therein stated.

Oct. 7.

The following promotions, dated Sept. 2, 1878, have taken place in the Royal Marine Light Infantry, viz.:—Major-Gen. P. C. Penrose, C.B., to be lieut.-gen., vice Clavell, deceased; Col.-Com. F. J. Richards to be major-gen., vice Penrose; Lieut. Col. Sec. Com. and Brevet Col. H. W. Gwyn, A.D.C., to be col.-com, vice Richards; Lieut. Col. E. J. R. Connolly to be sec. com., vice Gwyn: Maj. J. S. Mould to be lieut.-col., vice Connolly: Capt. A Mackintosh to be major, vice Mould: Lieut. and Assist.-Musketry-Instructor W. P. Wright to be capt., vice Macintosh.

ROYAL NAVAL ARTILLERY VOLUNTEERS.

London Brigade.

Admiralty, Oct. 12.

J. G. W. Hoare, Esq., retired paymaster, R.N., to be paymaster (Oct. 12).

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ARMY.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Sept. 24.

Where not otherwise specified. the following commissions bear date Sept. 25, 1878:—

Royal Horse Guards—Captain Charles Robert, Lord Carington, retires from the Service, receiving the value of his commission.

8th Hussars—Vet.-Surg. Thos. Flintoff, from the Royal Artillery, to be vet.-surg., vice S. L. Pallin, transferred to the 18th Hussars.

13th Hussars—Lieut. Gilbert L. Elliott to take precedence as a Lieut. in the Regiment and in the Army as though his commission bore date June 13, 1878.

18th Hussars — Vet.-Surgeon Samuel L. Pallin, from the 8th Hussars, to be vet.-surg., vice Vet.-Surg. of the First Class J. Mills, transferred to the Vet. Department.

19th Hussars—Second Lieut. David E. D. Barclay, from the 64th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. F. M. Kenyon-Stow, promoted into the 5th Dragoon Guards.

Brigade Depot—Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. the Hon. Richard Monck has been placed on half-pay for service on the staff; Aug. 27, 1878. Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Henry F. Williams, having served five years as a substantive Lieut. Col., is placed on half-pay.

2nd Foot—The appointment as instructor of musketry of Lieut. Mitford Cust is antedated to May 1, 1878.

3rd Foot—Lieut. Francis M. Drury has been appointed a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps.

7th Foot—Lieut Col. and Brevet Col. Geo. F. Herbert, having served five years as a regimental Lieut. Col. is placed on half-pay. Lieut. Fredk. St. Ledger Tottenham to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. G. F. Guyon, promoted; Aug. 21, 1878.

9th Foot—Quartermaster Thos. Sterrett, retires on half-pay.

10th Foot—Sub Lieut. Beamish St. John Barter to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1876.

12th Foot—Second Lieut. Wm. Giles, from the 4th Foot to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. O. Williams, promoted.

14th Foot—Quartermaster Thos. Bayley, from the 41st Foot, to be quartermaster, vice J. Miller, who exchanges.

17th Foot—Capt. George James Maillard retires on half-pay.

19th Foot—Capt. Reginald E. Huxham retires on a pension. Lieut. Mathew V. E. Sankey, from the Royal North Down Militia, to be second lieut., vice W. J. Lascelles, transferred to the Rifle Brigade.

20th Foot—Lieut. H. Ramsay Feilden, from the Hereford Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. C. G. Collingwood, promoted.

22nd Foot — Second Lieut. Rullion H. Rattray, from 61st Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. H. H. Sealy promoted.

35th Foot—Lieut. Henry Slane Fleming, from the Royal Elthorne or 5th Middlesex Militia, to be second lieut., vice J. H. Williams, transferred to the 43rd Foot.

41st Foot—Quartermaster John Miller from the 14th Foot, to be quartermaster, vice T. Rayley, who exchanges.

43rd Foot—Second Lieut. Alex. H. Dobbs, from the 19th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. E. T. C. N. Marten, a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps.

57th Foot—Super. Capt. James R. K. Tredennick to be major, vice C. M. Clarke, promoted; May 7, 1878.

58th Foot—Capt. Richard Hoggard Harrison retires from the Service, receiving a gratuity.

84th Foot—Lieut. Arnauld J. H. Murray, from the Royal Eltborne or 5th Middlesex Militia, to be second lieut., vice W. J. A. C, J. Cavendish-Bentinck, transferred to the Coldstream Guards.

94th Foot—Lieut. Henry Dolben, from the 1st Warwick Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut C. C. Budd, promoted.

Rifle Brigade—Lieut. William Bagwell retires from the Service, receiving the value of an ensigncy.

1st West India Regiment—Sub Lieut. Arthur Walter Lyster to be lieut.; March 8, 1876.

Army Pay Department.

The undermentioned Officer, having resigned his commission as a combatant officer, to be paymaster, with the hon. rank of capt. in the Army from April 8, 1878, such antedate not to carry pay prior to Sept. 25, 1878:—Capt. Robt. M. Ireland, from the 1st Foot.

Veterinary Department.

Vet-Surgeon of the First Class. John Mills, from the 18th Hussars, to be vet.-surg.

Brevet.

Lieut. Col. Geo. F. Herbert, 7th Foot, to be col.; Sept. 6, 1878.

Capt. Reginald Edwd. Huxham, 19th Foot, to have the hon. rank of major upon retiring on a pension.

Quartermaster Thos. Sterrett, upon retiring on half-pay.

The following promotions to take place in succession to General James M. B. Fraser-Tytler, C.B., Bengal Staff Corps, placed on the Retired List, on Aug, 20, 1878, under the provisions of Article 138 of the Royal Warant of May 1, 1878.

Lieut.-General Henry Pritchard, Madras Staff Corps, to be gen.; Aug. 20, 1878.

Major-Gen. James K. Spence, Bengal Staff Corps, to be lieut.-gen.: Aug. 20, 1878.

Brevet Col. Geo. Alex Lockie, from lieut. col., Bombay Staff Corps, to be major-gen.; Aug. 20, 1878.

Major Fred. Pocklington, 5th Foot, to be lieut. col.; Aug. 20, 1878.

Capt. Charles Pulteney-Forbes, 109th Foot, to be major; Aug. 20, 1878.

The following further promotions to take place consequent on the death, on Aug. 22, 1878, Maj.-Gen. Thos. G. A. Oakes, C.B.:—

Major Wm Strake, 15th Foot, to be lieut. col.; Aug. 23, 1878.

Capt. Robt. John Watson, 29th Foot, to be major; Aug. 23, 1878.

The undermentioned promotions, dated Aug. 20, 1878, to take place amongst the General Officers of Her Majesty's Indian Military Forces in consequence of the retirement on that date of General J. M. B. Fraser-Tytler, C.B., Bengal Staff Corps.

Lieut.-Gen. Geo. de Sausmarez, Madras Infantry, to be gen.

Maj.-Gen. Edwd. Patrick Lynch, Bombay Infantry to be lieut.-gen.

The undermentioned promotion on the Retired List, dated Aug. 20, 1878, to take place in consequence of the above promotions:—

Lieut.-Gen. Chas. Prior, Bengal Infantry, to be gen.

The undermentioned Officers to have a step of hon. rank on retirement:—

To be major-gens.—Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Charles Herbert, Bengal Staff Corps. Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Samuel C. Law, Bombay Staff Corps. Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Edmund Lewin Taverner, Bombay Staff Corps. Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Samuel J. Thorp, Bombay Staff Corps.

To be lieut. col.—Maj. John H. Blanchard, Bengal Army.

Memorandum.

Maj. and Brevet Lieut. Colonel Fredk. West, half-pay, late Depot Battalion, retires from the Service receiving the value of his commission; Aug. 27. 1878.

War Office, Sept. 27.

Where not otherwise specifed, the following commissions bear date Sept. 28, 1878:—

5th Regiment of Foot—Lieut.-Gen. Wm. Lygon, Earl of Longford K.C.B., to be col., vice Gen.

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Edwd. R Hill, deceased; Sept. 11, 1878.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Sept. 27.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Sept. 28, 1878:—

Artillery.

Antrim—Lieut. Rowland Winn, from the West Kent Militia, to be lieut.; Sept. 9, 1878

West Cork—Lieut. Fredk. Thos. Verschoyle to be capt., vice F. H. Warren promoted; July 22, 1878.

Donegal—Thos. Butler Stoney, Esq., to be capt.

Dublin City—Lieut. Algernon A. M. Aylmer resigns his commission; Aug. 30, 1878. Thomas D. Pilcher, gent., to be second lieut.; Aug. 30, 1878.

Forfarshire and Kincardine—Andrew Geo. Wood, gent., to be lieut.

Hampshire—Sub Lieut. Arthur Vizard to be lieut.; Aug. 21, 1879.

Limerick City—Quartermaster-Sergeant John Brock to be quartermaster; April 1, 1878.

Infantry.

1st Royal Cheshire—Lieutenant Philip Henry B. Salisbury to be capt.

West Kent—Percy Wildman-Lushington, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Royal Lancashire—Wm. J. Murphy, gent., to be second lieut.

Leicester—Second Lieut. Chas. G. E. J. Manners resigns his commission.

1st or West Norfolk—Second Lieut. Gilbert T. Elliot resigns his commission.

2nd Somerset—The undermentioned Second Lieuts. to be lieuts:—Arthur T. Payne, Edwd. S. St. Aubyn, Edwd. Strachey, jun.

4th West York—John S. Stanhope, gent., to be second lieut.

Royal Perth—Sub Lieut. Wm. Stewart to be lieut.; Nov. 8, 1878.

Royal Dublin City—Capt. Wm. De Benzi Horan to be major.

Kildare — Quartermater-Sergt. John Gage, from the 66th Brigade Depot, to be quartermaster.

King's County—Sub Lieut. Arthur W. Sankey to be lieut.; June 30, 1877.

Royal Meath—Sub Lieut. H. D. E. Rowley to be lieut. Dated Oct. 28, 1876.

Westmeath—Sub Lieut. the Hon. Bernard Henry P. Petre to be lieut.; Aug. 11, 1875.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Pembroke—Lieut. Chas. E. G. Philipps to be capt.; Sept. 5, 1878.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Sept. 27.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Sept. 28, 1878:—

12th Argyllshire Artillery—W. C. Sim, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd Kent Artillery—Second Lieut. George K. Anderson to be lieut. Jersey Barnes, gent., to be second lieut.

8th Lancashire Artillery—Sec. Lieut. Ernest R. Dodsworth to be lieut.

15th Lancashire Artillery—Sec Lieut. Wm. Pagen to be lieut. Second Lieut. Joseph W. Roberts to be lieut.

1st Lincolnshire Artillery—Lieut. John Caister resigns his commission.

2nd Middlesex Artillery—Morris A. Chubb, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

1st Administrative Brigade Monmouthshire Artillery—Surg. Edwards Potts resigns his commission.

1st Monmouthshire Artillery—Capt. Walter West resigns his commission.

1st Worcestershire Artillery—Capt. Wm. Stallard to be lieut. col.

8th West Riding of Yorkshire Artillery—Second Lieut. Donald R. Edgar to be lieut.

1st Aberdeenshire Engineers—Lieut. Wm. Hall to be capt.

1st London Engineers—Sub Lieut. James B. Wheeler resigns his commission.

1st Middlesex Engineers—Lt.

Alfred H. Bevan resigns his commission.

3rd Administrative Battalion Aberdeenshire Rifles—Surg. Wm. A. Gavin resigns his commission.

1st Berwickshire Rifles—John L. Campbell-Swinton, gent., to be second lieut.

3rd Breconshire Rifles—Acting-Chap. the Rev. James Griffith resigns his appointment. The Rev. Boscawen Somerset to be act.-chap.

26th Cheshire Rifles—Honorary Assist.-Surg. Geo. W. Mould resigns his commission.

1st Cumberland Rifles—Sub Lieut. James Mitchell to be lieut.: July 30, 1873.

10th Essex Rifles—Lieut. John G. Vaizey resigns his commission.

1st Kent Rifles—Acting-Surg. Wm. H. Farrington, M.D., resigns his appointment.

5th Kircudbrightshire Rifles—Act.-Chap. the Rev. James Alex. Campbell resigns his appointment.

29th Lanarkshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Robt. Brand resigns his commission.

1st Lancashire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Geo. Roberts to be lieut.; June 23, 1877.

29th Lancashire Rifles—Sub Lieut. John W. Loxham resigns his commission.

40th Lancashire Rifles—Sub Lieut. John T. Doyle to be lieut.; May 23, 1877. Second Lieut. Jas. Hulme to be lieut. Second Lieut. Alban Furniss to be lieut.

2nd London Rifles—John E. Dalley, gent., to be second lieut.

11th Middlesex Rifles—Lieut. Wm. H. Sercombe resigns his commission.

3rd Northamptonshire Rifles—Lieut. Harry Manfield resigns his commission.

2nd Worcestershire Rifles—Ed. V. V. Wheeler, gent., to be second lieut.

6th North Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—John S. Kitching, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

29th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Geo. W. Fox, gent., to be second lieut.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Oct. 1.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Oct. 2, 1878:—

General Order, No. 94.

Staff.

His Royal Highness the Field Marshal Commanding-in-Chief has been pleased to appoint Major-Gen. Martin Dillon, C.B., C.S.I., to be assist. military secretary at Headquarters, vice Major General Robert B. Hawley, C.B., appointed Deputy Adjt. Gen. to the Forces; Oct. 1, 1878. (Signed) C. H. Ellice, Adjt. Gen.

Royal Engineers—Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Col. Alex. Davidson (late Bombay), from the Super. List, to be col., vice J. G. Fife (late Bombay), removed as a Gen. officer; Aug. 24, 1878.

Brigade Depot—Lieut.-Colonel and Brevet Col. George D. Webber, C.B., from half-pay, late 2nd West India Regiment, to be lieut.-col., vice Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Colonel the Honourable Richard Monck, placed on half-pay. Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Col. Hugh Parker Montgomery, from half-pay late 60th Foot, to be lieut.-colonel, vice Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Col. Henry F. Williams, placed on half-pay.

Commissariat and Transport Department—The undermentioned officers are granted retired pay from Oct. 1, 1878, on reorganisation of the Department, viz.:—Assistant Commissary-Gen. Thos. Gem, Assist. Commissary-Gen. Fredk. C. Evelegh, C.B. Assist. Commissary-Gen. Chas. W. Eichbaum. Commissary Henry B. A. Middleton. Deputy-Commissary Fredk. G. Frith. Deputy-Commissary John S. Ravenhill. Deputy Commissary Wm. Macken. Assist. Commissary Wm. Gammel. The second Christian name of Assist. Commissary Power, gazetted to half-pay with the hon. rank of Captain on April 24, 1877, is William.

Brevet.

The following promotions to take place consequent upon the

death, on Aug. 23, 1878, of Major Gen. C. V. Wilkieson, Royal (late Madras) Engineers:—

Col. James G. Fife, Royal (late Bombay) Engineers, to be maj.-gen.; Aug. 24, 1878.

Capt. and Brevet Maj. William Stevens, half-pay, late 2nd Foot, to be lieut.-col.; Aug. 24, 1878.

Capt. Walter C. Mackinnon, 3rd Foot, to be maj.; Aug. 24, 1878.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Oct. 1.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Oct. 2, 1878:—

Artillery.

Antrim—Capt. Francis Charles Hughes-Hallett, from the 1st Royal Surrey Militia, to be maj.

Dublin City—Lieut.-Col. Wm. J. N. Magill is granted the hon. rank of col.

The Duke of Edinburgh's Own Edinburgh—H. Mayhew, gent., to be second lieut.

The Duke of Connaught's Own Sligo—Major Robt. S. Ormsby is granted the hon. rank of lieut.-col.

Infantry.

Royal Bucks—Second Lieut. Frank W. Eagar to be lieut.

Royal Cumberland—Sub-Lieut. Thomas Ramshay to be lieut.; June 27, 1877.

2nd, or South Devon—Sub-Lieut. F. Mockler to be lieut.; Feb. 9, 1876.

Hertford—Sub-Lieut. Walter P. Alleyne to be lieut.; May 2, 1877.

Royal Elthorne, or 5th Middlesex—Maj. Frederic W. Woodall is granted the hon. rank of Lieut.-Col. Lieut. Chicheley S. Baker to be capt.

2nd, or East Norfork—Major Henry C. Mathew is granted the hon. rank of Lieut.-Col.

Oxford—William P. Pulteney, gent., to be second lieut.

West Suffolk—The undermentioned Sub-Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—Phillip Gurdon; Nov. 22, 1876. Henry J. Deane; Nov. 22, 1876.

1st Warwick—Alfred B. Allen, gent., to be second lieut.

Royal Westmoreland—Lieut. Maurice S. O. Cuffe resigns his commission.

Worcester—Sub-Lieut. Robt. V. Berkeley to be lieut.; Aug. 26, 1876.

East York—Sub-Lieut. Charles H. T. Whitaker to be lieut.; Jan. 10, 1877.

North York—The undermentioned Second Lieuts. to be lieuts.: Cecil S. Miller. James P. Robson.

The Royal Aberdeenshire Highlanders—Lieut. Wm. D. Innes to be capt., vice C. T. Graham-Trotter, deceased.

The Highland Rifles—Lieut. David H. Williamson resigns his commission.

Renfrew—Sub-Lieut. Archibald C. Shaw-Stewart to be lieut.; Dec. 30, 1876.

Scottish Borderers—Gilbert F. W. Grierson, gent., to be second lieut.

Royal South Devon—Sub-Lieut. Walter McMurrough Kavanagh to be lieut.; June 26, 1876.

Dublin County—Wm. S. Kincaid, gent., to be second lieut.

Fermanagh—Ponsonby J. L. Tottenham, gent., to be second lieut.

Kilkenny—Lieut. George F. D. Sutherland to be capt., vice B. Neville, promoted.

Royal Meath—Capt. John P. Kearney is granted the hon. rank of Major.

Monaghan—Capt. and Adjutant Henry Henderson is granted the hon. rank of Major.

Roscommon—John S. Pelly, gent., to be second lieut.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Montgomeryshire—Richard M. P. Low, Esq., M.D., to be surg., vice M. L. Jones, resigned. Sept. 12, 1878.

Royal Wiltshire—Walter John Grove, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Oct. 4.

Where not otherwise specified the following commissions bear date Oct. 5.

4th Dragoon Guards—Lieut. Wm. J. H. Townsend to be capt.,

vice C. V. Ibbetson, seconded for service as an Adjt. of Auxiliary Forces; Sept. 5, 1878.

6th Dragoon Guards—Maj. and Brevet Lieut. Col. Stanley de Astel C. Clarke retires on half-pay.

6th Dragoons—Lieut. Walter H. C. Long, from the 2nd Somerset Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. W. H. Dawson, promoted.

12th Lancers—Lieut. Edmund M. Mansel-Pleydell to be capt., vice Brevet Major J. C. Russel, seconded for special service at the Cape of Good Hope; Aug. 31, 1878.

17th Lancers—Super. Major Thomas Gonne to be lieut.-col., vice Brevet Col. D. C. Drury-Lowe, retired on half-pay, Sept. 14, 1876. Sub-Lieut. Thomas A. Steele to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1876.

Grenadier Guards—Lieut. and Capt. Wm. S. Kenyon-Slaney to be capt. and lieut. col., vice D. M. M. Crichton, seconded for service on the Staff: Aug. 21, 1878. Lieut. Fitzroy R. C. Paget resigns his commission.

Coldstream Guards—Capt. and Lieut. Col. Robert C. Goff retires on a pension. Lieut. and Capt. Harvey J. L. Bruce to be capt. and lieut. col., vice F. W. Freemantle, seconded for service on the Staff; Aug. 24, 1878. Sub-Lieut. Herbert C. Surtees to be lieut. Oct. 31, 1877, but his commission as Lieut. in the Army to bear date Sept. 11, 1876.

1st Foot—Lieut. Vincent M. Birkbeck, from the 6th West York Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to W. H. Bond, resigned.

4th Foot—Lieut. Edward H. Fitzherbert to be capt., vice E. R. P. Woodgate, seconded for special service at the Cape of Good Hope; Aug. 31, 1878.

6th Foot—Lieut. Wm. C. Godfrey, from the Kerry Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. Lewis, promoted.

7th Foot—Second Lieut. Chas. A. Staniland, from 105th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. G. F. Guyon, promoted. Second Lieut. Frederick P. F. Wood, from the 33rd Foot, to be second lieut, in succession to Lieut. J. R. Beckett, promoted.

10th Foot—Lieut. Thomas G. Booth to be capt., vice R. G. Southey, seconded for special service at the Cape of Good Hope; Aug. 31, 1878. Lieut. Christian Combe, from the Hampshire Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. N. P. O'Gorman, promoted.

12th Foot—Lieut. John J. F. Irwin to be capt., vice C. H. Gardner, seconded for service on the Staff; Sept. I, 1878.

13th Foot—Lieut. Alexander C. O'Donnell, from the 1st Surrey Militia, to be second lieut., on augmentation.

16th Foot—Lieut. Arthur R. Cole-Hamilton, from the Royal Tyrone Fusiliers Militia. to be second lieut., vice C. H. Stisted, transferred to the 13th Foot.

17th Foot—Sub-Lieuts. Wm. N. Justice, George D. Carleton, Chas. A. Roberts, Wm. D. Gordon to be lieuts.; Sept. 11, 1877.

18th Foot—Major and Brevet Lieut.-Col. Charles F. Gregorie to be lieut.-col., vice Brevet Col. E. L. Dillon, to be placed on half-pay; Sept. 14, 1878. Capt. and Brevet Major James M. Toppin to be maj., vice Brevet Lieut.-Col. C. F. Gregorie; Sept. 14, 1878. Lieut. Edward H. Le Breton to be capt., vice Brevet Major J. M. Toppin; Sept. 14. 1878. Lieut. Alex. W. Simpson to be capt., vice T. B. Meredith, retired on a pension; Sept. 14, 1878.

20th Foot—Capt. Geo S. Byng, from half-pay, late Rifle Brigade, to be capt., vice J. K. McCausland, transferred to the 25th Foot.

21st Foot—Super. Capt. Thos. C. Rose to be capt., vice F. W. V. Packman, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department: Sept. 15, 1878. The following notification to be substituted for that which appeared in the Gazette of Aug. 20, 1878:—Lieut. Henry J. Meares to be Instructor of Musketry, vice Lieut. (now Capt.) A. J. O. Pollock, who has

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resigned that appointment; Oct. 25, 1877.

22nd Foot—Lieut. William C. Neville, from the Kilkenny Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. W. C. Molyneux, promoted.

23rd Foot—Super. Capt. and Brevet Maj. Wm. J. Twyford to be capt., vice G. J. C. Whittington, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Sept. 14, 1878.

24th Foot—Lieut. Bertram M. O. H. Gosselin, from the Royal Guernsey Artillery Militia, to be second lieut, in succession to Lieut. H. B. Moffatt, promoted.

26th Foot—Lieut. Geo. Winter to be capt., vice L. R. Phillips, retired; Aug. 31, 1878. Lieut. Edward M. Dougherty to be capt., vice W. B. Wade, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Sept. 14, 1878.

28th Foot—Sub-Lieut. John E. M. Pilkngton to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1876.

31st Foot—Lieut. Edward S. Gillman, from the West Cork Artillery Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to F. Ward promoted.

37th Foot—Lieut. Thomas R. A. G. Montgomery, from the Donegal Artillery Militia, to be second lieut., vice C. G. R. Thackwell. transferred to the 51st Foot.

42nd Foot—Capt. George T. C. Moore retires on a pension. Lieut. Andrew G. Wauchope to be capt., vice R. B. C. Daubeney, retired; Sept. 14. 1878.

43rd Foot—Sub-Lieut. William S. Widdicombe to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1876.

48th Foot—Lieut. Alex. Wm. Fair to be Instructor of Musketry, vice Lieut. W. T. MacLaughlin, promoted; July 7, 1878

50th Foot—Lieut. Edgar J. Robinson to be capt., vice C. M. Churchill, seconded for service as an Adjutant of Auxiliary Forces; May 20, 1878.

51st Foot—Lieut. Thos. J. Seppings to be capt., vice Brevet Maj. C. K. Chatfield, seconded for service on the Staff; Aug. 11, 1878.

53rd Foot—Lieut. Charles M. Hamilton, from the Royal Tyrone Fusiliers Militia, to be second lieut., vice C. J. Bond, transferred to the 22nd Foot.

54th Foot—Super. Capt. and Brevet Maj. Edward D. Newbolt to be major, vice F. G. S. Parker, retired on half-pay; Sept. 14, 1878.

55th Foot—Sub-Lieut. Charles G. Matthews to be lieut.; July 15, 1877.

56th Foot—Super. Lieut. Alex. M. Delavoye to be capt., vice W. Bell, resigned an appointment to the Army Pay Department; Sept. 14, 1878. Lieutenant Harold P. Molineaux to be capt., vice A. M. Delavoye, seconded for service as an Instructor at the Royal Military College; Sept. 14, 1878.

57th Foot—Capt. Geo. C. Denton retires from the Service, receiving the value of his commission.

58th Foot—Lieut. Robert L Arathoon to be capt., vice O. W Hill, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Sept. 14, 1878.

59th Foot—Major and Brevet Lieut.-Col. Richard Lacy to be lieut.-col., vice Brevet Col. J. de Montmorency, placed on half-pay; Sept. 14, 1878. Capt. and Brevet Major Wm. J. Frampton to be maj., vice Brevet Lieut.-Col. R. Lacy; Sept. 14, 1878. Lieut. Wm. P. Lawlor to be capt., vice Brevet Major W. J. Frampton; Sept. 14, 1878.

60th Foot—Lieut. Ernest H. Thurloe to be capt., vice P. J. H. A. Barne, retired; Aug. 21, 1878.

65th Foot—Lieut. Wm. M. P. Coleman to be capt., vice E. Lee seconded for service as an Adjt. of Auxiliary Forces; Aug. 11, 1878. Sub-Lieut. Walter G. Gordon to be lieut.; Feb. 11, 1877.

71st Foot—Lieut. Alan Cameron to be capt., vice C. L. Harvey, seconded for special service at the Cape of Good Hope; Aug. 31, 1878.

74th Foot—Sub-Lieut. Alfred R. Heneage to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1877. Sub-Lieut. Harrison Midwood to be lieut.: Sept. 14, 1877,

but his commission as Lieut. in the Army to bear date Sept. 11, 1876.

79th Foot—Second Lieut. Chas. J. C. Douglas, from the 74th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. S. C. L. Bucknall, promoted. Lieut. John L. Probyn, from the Royal South Gloucester Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to A. N. Forbes-Gordon, promoted.

84th Foot—Lieut. Charles B. Cameron, from the 1st Royal Guernsey Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. L. Power, promoted. Lieut. Alex. Anderson, from the Royal Perth Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. C. W. R. Ford, promoted.

86th Foot—Captain and Brevet Major Wm. K. Gray to be major, vice Brevet Lieut. Col. W. Knipe, retired on half-pay: Aug. 31, 1878. Lieut. Jas. D. Stewart to be capt., vice Brevet Major W. K. Gray: Aug. 31, 1878. Sub Lieut. Arthur T. Swaine to be lieut.: May 17, 1876.

89th Foot—Lieut. Joseph R. McMurray to be capt., vice R. O. Richmond, resigned, on appointment to the Army Pay Department: Sept. 14, 1878.

93rd Foot—Capt. John A. MacVicar retires from the Service, receiving the gratuity.

94th Foot—The surname of the Second Lieut. appointed in the Gazette of Sept. 13, 1878, is Tylden-Pattenson, and not Tylden-Patterson, as therein stated.

95th Foot—Lieut. Egerton A. Tower, from the North Cork Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. E. T. M. Dickin, promoted.

96th Foot—Captain and Brevet Major Maxwell W. Hyslop, from half-pay, late 93rd Foot, to be capt., vice C. S. P. Willoughby, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department.

98th Foot—Major and Brevet Lieut. Col. Attilio Sceberras to be lieut. col,, vice Brevet Col. T. F. Lloyd, placed on half-pay: Sept. 14, 1878. Capt. and Brevet Maj. Chas. G. Heathcote to be major, vice Brevet Lt. Col. A. Sceberras: Sept. 14, 1878. Lieut. Edwd. T. B. Sparks to be capt., vice Brevet Maj. C. G. Heathcote; Sept. 14, 1878. Lieut. Osmand M. Johnson to be capt., vice Brevet Maj. C. H. Griffin retired on a pension: Sept. 14, 1878.

103rd Foot—Lieut. Martin John Hickley to be capt., vice R. McL. Nott, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Sept. 14, 1878.

106th Foot—Lieut. Edwd. L. K. Talbot, from the Louth Militia, to be second lieut., vice G. T. S. Sebright, transferred to the Coldstream Guards.

108th Foot—Lieut. Wm. H. D. Rick, from the 1st Royal Surrey Militia, to be second lieut., vice F. S. St. Quintin, transferred to the 17th Foot.

Rifle Brigade—Maj. and Brevet Col. Godfrey Clerk to be lieut. col, vice A. H. Stephens. placed on half-pay; Sept. 1, 1878. Captain and Brevet Major Chas. G. Slade to be major, vice Brevet Col. G. Clerk: Sept. 1, 1878. Super. Capt. and Brevet Major Wm. H. Deedes to be capt., vice H. S. Brownrigg, seconded for service on the Staff: Sept. 1, 1878. Capt. John L. Tufnell-Tyrell retires from the Service, receiving a gratuity. The promotions to the rank of capt. of Lieuts. John A. Fergusson and Jenico J. Preston, dated April 20, and May 1, 1878, respectively, have been cancelled. Lieut. J. A. Fergusson to be capt., vice A. C. F. FitzGeorge, transferred to the 11th Hussars: March 20, 1878. Lieut. J. J. Preston to be capt., vice Brevet Major C. T. Bunbury, promoted: April 20, 1878. Lieut. Francis Howard to be capt., vice Brevet Major W. R. Lascelles, seconded for service on the Staff; April 30, 1878. Lieut. Walter J. Lindsay to be capt., vice the Hon. C. E. Edwardes, promoted major on half-pay; May 1, 1878. Lieut. Percy G. Hill to be capt., vice Brevet Major C. G. Slade, promoted; Sept. 1, 1878.

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Army Pay Department.

The undermentioned Officer, having resigned his commission as a combatant officer, to be paymaster, with the hon. rank of capt. in the Army; April 16, 1878, such antedate not to carry back pay prior to October 5, 1878:—Capt. Melmouth C. Gahan, from the 20th Foot.

Veterinary Department.

The undermentioned Gents. to be vet.-surgs. on probation:—Richard H. Ringe. Chas. E. Smith. Gerald H. Fenton. Robt. Pringle.

Brevet.

Capt. and Lieut. Col. Robt. C. Goff, Coldstream Guards, to have the hon. rank of col., on retiring upon a pension.

Capt. Geo. T. C. Moore, 42nd Foot, to have the hon. rank of major, upon retiring on a pension.

The following promotions to take p'ace in succession to Lieut.-Gen. Edmund R. Jeffreys, placed on the Retired List on Aug. 29, 1878, under the provisions of Article 138 of the Royal Warrant of May 1, 1878.

Major-Gen. John Simpson, C.B., (since deceased), to be lieut.-gen.; Aug. 29, 1878.

Brevet Col. Wm. Hill, from lieut.-col., half-pay, late 2nd West India Regiment, to be major-gen.: Aug. 29, 1878.

Major St. John Willans, 36th Foot to be lieut. col.; Aug. 29. 1878.

Capt. Walter F. Blake, 4th Foot to be major; Aug. 29, 1878.

The following promotion to take place consequent on the death, on Sept. 8, 1878, of Lieut.-gen. John Simpson, C.B.

Major-Gen. Henry G. Rainey, C.B., to be lieut.-gen.; Sept. 9, 1878.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Oct. 8.

Where not otherwise specified the following commissions bear date Oct. 9, 1878.

Commissariat and Transport Department.

The undermentioned officers have been granted retired pay, from Oct. 1, 1878, on reorganisation of the Department, viz.:—Deputy-Commissaries Chas. Robt. Crawford, Walter Ernest S. Battiscombe, Walter C. Rees, Biddulph L. Warner, Alex. W. Acheson, J. John B. Irving, and Anthony E. Parker. Com. Lynch J. Keogh, from half-pay, has been placed on retired pay, on reorganisation of the Department: Oct. 1, 1878. Deputy-Com. John Thomson, from half-pay, has been placed on retired pay, on reorganisation of the Department; Oct. 1, 1878.

Ordnance Store Department.

Assist. Com.-Gen. Alexander D. Burnaby, from half-pay, has been placed on retired pay, on reorganisation of the Department; Oct. 1, 1878.

Army Pay Department.

Paymaster and Hon. Maj. Archibald C. Forster, from the 89th Foot, to be paymaster, and to stand between Paymasters R. B. Farwell and A. A. Ross; April 1, 1878.

Chaplains' Department.

Chaplain of the First Class the Rev. Robert L. M'Ghee, M.A., retires on half-pay; Sept. 24, 1878.

Memorandum.

Assist.-Com. Herbert Malcouronne, late of the Control Department, has been permitted to commute his half-pay; Aug. 26, 1878.

India Office, Oct. 8, 1878.

Her Majesty has been pleased to approve of the following admissions to Her Majesty's Indian Medical Service:—

To be Surgeons; March 30, 1878.

Bengal—Jarlath F. Mullen, M.D., Eugene Cretin, Andrew Duncan, M.D., George F. Nicholson, M.D., Arthur Hemsted, Geo. A. Jones, Samuel F. Bigger, George Scott Robertson, John S. Biale. John E. Walsh, M.D., George Michael Nixon.

Madras—Thos. H. Pope, Robert Pemberton, James J. Moran, M.D., Ferdinand C. Smith, William A. Quayle, M.D., Henry Armstrong.

Bombay—Dominic A. Gomes. Thomas E. Worgan, Chas. Monks, Phirozsha J. Damania, George H.

Bull, M.D., Joseph Herbert Earle, Fredk. F. MacCartie, Charles U. Carruthers.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Sept. 28.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Sept. 29, 1878.

Memorandum.

The Queen has been graciously pleased to apppoint Lieut.-Col. James Godfray, 2nd or East Regiment of Royal Jersey Militia, to be one of Her Majesty's Aides-de-Camp, for the service of Her Militia Force, with the rank of Col. in that Force, vice Col. Clement Hemery, deceased.

India Office, Oct. 11.

Her Majesty has been pleased to approve of the following promotions among the Officers of the Staff Corps and Indian Military Forces, made by the Governments in India:—

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Oct. 12, 1878.

Brevet.

To be Lieut.-Cols.—Maj. Richard C. Stewart, Madras Cavalry, in succession to Gen. P. F. Story, C B., Bengal Cavalry, removed to the Retired List; Dec. 22, 1877. Major Robert C. Low, Bengal Cavalry in succession to Lieut.-Gen. Sir A. T. Wilde, K.C.B., C.S.I., Madras Staff Corps, deceased; Feb. 8, 1878.

To be Majors—Capt. George T. Halliday, Bengal Cavalry, in succession to Lieut.-Gen. L. Barrow, C.B., Madras Staff Corps, deceased Oct. 2, 1877. Capt. William H. Beckett, Bengal Infantry, in succession to Major-Gen. E. E. Miller, Madras Staff Corps, deceased; Oct. 11, 1877. Capt. Thos. J. Quin, Bengal Infantry, in succession to Major-Gen. A. H. A. Hervey, Madras Infantry, deceased; Oct. 28, 1877. Capt. Neville F. Parker Bengal Infantry, in succession to Gen. P. F. Story, C.B., Bengal Cavalry, removed to the Retired List; Dec. 22, 1877. Capt. Chas. N. Hodgson, Bengal Infantry, in succession to Major-Gen. E. C. Beale, Bombay Infantry, deceased; Jan. 1, 1878. Capt. Walter Robt. Hamilton, Bengal Infantry (since deceased), in succession to Lieut.-Gen. Sir A. T. Wilde, K.C.B., C.S.I., Madras Staff Corps, deceased; Feb. 8, 1878. Capt. Robt. G. Mayne, Bombay Cavalry; July 21, 1878.

Substantive Promotions.

MADRAS STAFF CORPS.

To be Lieut.-Col.—Major Chas. J. Stuart; July 20, 1878.

To be Majors—Capt. Wm. H. Hoskins; July 20, 1878. Capt. John Hudleston; Aug. 4, 1878.

To be Capt.—Lieut. Arthur W. Carter; Aug. 3, 1878.

MADRAS ARMY.

To be Major—Late 5th Light Cavalry—Capt. (Brevet Major) Thomas H. T. Chalon; June 25, 1878.

BOMBAY STAFF CORPS.

To be Lieut. Col.—Maj. Geo. B. Crispin; July 20, 1878.

To be Maj.—Capt. (Brevet Lieut. Col.) George F. Beville; June 27, 1878.

To be Capts.—Lieut. Hugh F. Smith; June 26, 1878. Lieut. Chas. W. H. Sealy; July 17, 1878.

In the London Gazette of July 9, 1878, the dates of promotion and alteration of rank, in succession to the Cols. promoted in the London Gazette of Feb. 15, 1878, should have been given as Oct. 1, 1877, and not Oct. 1, 1878.

The names of the undermentioned officers, promoted in that Gazette to the rank of Maj., should have been given as follows:—Capt. Henry A. Yates, Madras Cavalry, Capt. Francis M. Newbery, Bengal Infantry. Capt. A. W. Graham should have been described as of the Bengal Infantry.

Her Majesty has been pleased to approve of the following admissions to Her Majesty's Indian Staff Corps made by the Governments in India:—

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BENGAL STAFF CORPS

To be Lieuts.—Lieut. Alfredo Montanaro, 70th Foot; Oct. 14, 1871. Lieut. Wm. A. D'O. Mealy, 67th Foot; Feb. 12, 1873. Lieut. Harold A. Deane, 54th Foot; Feb. 28, 1874. Lieut. Henry S. Massy, 2nd Battalion 9th Foot; Feb. 28. 1874. Lieut. Chas. B. Porter, 1st Battalion 8th Foot; Feb. 11, 1875. Lieut. Hugh F. L. Montgomery, 33rd Foot; June 13, 1875.

MADRAS STAFF CORPS.

To be Lieut.—Lieut. George Simpson, 109th Foot; Oct. 13, 1874.

BOMBAY STAFF CORPS.

To be Lieuts.—Lieut. Arthur M. Monteith, 72nd Foot; Aug. 9, 1873. Lieut. Chas. E. Mahon, 34th Foot; Sept. 21, 1874.

The date of rank of the undermentioned officers admitted to the Indian Staff Corps should be as follows, and not as stated in the London Gazettes named :—

BENGAL STAFF CORPS.

Lieut. John L. Browne, 54th Foot; Oct. 28, 1871. Lieut. Fredk. D. Welchman, 48th Foot; Oct. 28, 1871. Lieut. Robert Fulton; 1st Battalion 2nd Foot; Feb. 17, 1872; Lieut. Alfred E. Jones, 70th Foot; Feb. 28. 1874. Lieut. Henry G. Ryland, 1st Battalion 11th Foot; Feb. 28, 1874. Gazette of Aug. 20, 1878.

MADRAS STAFF CORPS.

Lieut. Charles Simpson, 18th Hussars; Oct. 28, 1871, and not August 28, 1871, as stated in the Gazette of Oct. 26, 1877.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Oct. 10.

Where not otherwise specified the following commissions bear date Oct. 11, 1878.

3rd Aberdeenshire Artillery—Sub-Lieut. Charles G. Stewart to be lieut.; June 23, 1877. Second Lieut. Wm. B. Avery, to be lieut. Second Lieut. Williamson Booth to be lieut. Second Lieut. Patrick Cooper to be lieut.

1st Argyllshire Artillery—John Shaw, gent., to be lieut.

5th Dorsetshire Artillery—R. J. Duke, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd Durham Artillery—Lieut. Harrop W. Richardson resigns his commission. Sub-Lieut. Richard Candlish to be lieut.; July 12, 1876. Sub-Lieut. Geo. W. Ross to be lieut.; March 3, 1877.

1st Edinburgh Artillery—Capt. Robt. T. Boothby, from Adjutant 1st Administrative Brigade Fife Artillery Volunteers, to be adjt., vice Vibart, placed on retired pay.

3rd Essex Artillery—Maj. Cardinal Brewster resigns his commission.

1st Hampshire Artillery—James J. Talbot, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

1st Kent Artillery—Sub-Lieut. John G. Symonds to be lieut.; Aug. 30, 1876.

10th Kent Artillery—Sub-Lieut. Arthur J. Shaw to be lieut.; June 14, 1876. Second-Lieut. Henry W. S. Brown to be lieut. Second Lieut. John B. Little to be lieut. Second Lieut. Stephen C. Paul to be lieut.

5th Lancashire Artillery—Lieut. Wm. Sandeman to be capt.

1st Midlothian Artillery—Sub-Lieut. Graham G. Watson to be lieut.: Aug. 2, 1876. Sub-Lieut. John H. Gillespie to be lieut.; May 23, 1877. Sub-Lieut. John M. D. Peddie to be lieut.; June 23, 1877. Sub-Lieut. Robert Esson to be lieut.; June 23, 1877.

1st Newcastle-on-Tyne—The services of Lieut. Charles J. Burnup are dispensed with. The services of Lieut. James Plews are dispensed with.

1st Staffordshire Artillery—The appointment of James Charlesworth, gent., to be acting-surgeon, which appeared in the London Gazette of July 9, 1878, is cancelled.

1st Surrey Artillery—Capt. H. Engelbach resigns his commission. Frederick T. Westley, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Sussex Artillery—Wm. P. Breach, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Sutherland Artillery—Capt.

David Sutherland resigns his commission.

1st Worcestershire Artillery—Sub-Lieut. Richard W. Brooks to be capt.

4th East Riding of Yorkshire Artillery—Wm. Sinclair, gent., to second lieut. (super.)

3rd West Riding of Yorkshire Artillery—Sub-Lieut. Edward J. Smith to be lieut.; May 2, 1877.

1st Aberdeenshire Engineers—Wm. H. Williamson, gent., to be lieut. John Duthie, gent., to be second lieut. John Simpson, gent., to be acting-surg.

1st Hampshire Engineers—F. C. B. Keller, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Middlesex Engineers—Second Lieut. John Palmer to be lieut. Second Lieut. Harry C. Biddel to be lieut. George A. Petter, gent., to be second lieut.

9th Aberdeenshire Rifles—Act.-Surg. Alex. G. Duncan resigns his appointment.

7th Ayrshire Rifles—The Christian names of Lieut. Kelso are John Rose, and not as previously stated.

1st Berkshire Rifles—Capt. W. H. Campbel resigns his commission. Lieut. Clement Hill resigns his commission.

6th Breconshire Rifles—Acting-Surgeon T. E. Williams resigns his appointment.

1st Buckinghamshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. John Rawson to be lieut.; Jan. 15, 1876. Wliliam F. Norris, gent., to be second lieut.

4th Cambridgeshire Rifles—The surname of the Acting Chaplain is Waller, not Walker. as stated in the London Gazette of Aug. 30, 1878.

1st Administrative Battalion Clackmannanshire Rifles — The Rev. Daniel McLean to be acting chaplain.

15th Derbyshire Rifles—Capt. Samuel R. Cox resigns his commission. Lieut. Edward Bemrose to be capt.

1st Devonshire Rifles—Second Lieut. Wm. E. Gray to be lieut. Second Lieut. Wm. C. Richards to be lieut.

8th Devonshire Rifles—William J. P. Whitaker, gent., to be second lieut.

6th Dorsetshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Chas. J. C. Rawlins to be lieut.; June 2, 1877.

6th Durham Rifles—Second Lieut. Thos. Guthrie to be lieut. June 2, 1877.

9th Durham Rifles—Second Lieut. Joseph Ivison to be lieut. Second Lieut. (Super.) John Shotten to be lieut.

16th Durham Rifles—Second Lieuts. Rowland Burdon to be capt.

3rd Glamorganshire Rifles—Lieut. Philip D. Warren resigns his commission. Sub-Lieut. R. Abraham resigns his commission.

10th Glamorganshire Rifles—Lieut. John G. Elliot resigns his commission. The services of Hon. Chaplain the Rev. Matthew A. Pierpoint are dispensed with.

20th Glamorganshire Rifles—Evan Jones, gent., to be acting-surgeon.

1st Huntingdonshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Wm. A. Watts to be lieut.; June 9, 1877

1st Kircudbrightshire Rifle—Sub-Lieut. James Muir, to be lieut.; May 16, 1877.

2nd Kircudbrightshire Rifles—Second Lieut. James Moffat, jun., to be lieut.

5th Kircudbrightshire Rifles—Second Lieut. Mark J. Symons to be lieut.

1st Lancashire Rifles—Capt. Archibald H. Sharpe, 73rd Foot, to be adjt,, vice Burge. whose period of service has expired; Sept. 11, 1878.

3rd Lanarkshire Rifles—Capt. Alex. R. Farm resigns his commission. Second Lieut. John F. McCulloch resigns his commission.

31st Lanarkshire Rifles—The Christian name of Quartermaster Wills is John only, and not as previously stated.

6th Administrative Battalion Lancashire Rifles—Maj. Sir Thos. G. F. Hesketh, Bart., resigns his commission.

4th Lancashire Rifles—William Preston, gent., to be acting-surg.

7th Lancashire Rifles—John

Barr, gent., to be second lieut.

11th Lancashire Rifles—Major Sir Thomas G. F. Hesketh, Bart., resigns his commission.

13th Lancashire Rifles—Alfred O. Newling, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

23rd Lancashire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. John E. Lawton resigns his commission.

31st Lancashire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Thos. H. Smyth to be lieut.; March 8, 1876.

33rd Lancashire Rifles—Second Lieut. Archibald P. Ledward to be lieut. Second Lieut. Edward H. Preston to be lieut.

80th Lancashire Rifles—Second Lieut. Wm. C. Sutherland resigns his commission.

1st Administrative Battalion Leicestershire Rifles—Sir Henry St. J. Halford, Bart., to be lieut.-col.

5th Leicestershire Rifles—Second Lieut. Arthur G. Ellis to be capt.

1st London Rifles—Wm. E. R. Wood, gent., to be surgeon.

2nd London Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Frank R. Parker to be lieut.; March 3, 1875.

2nd Middlesex Rifles—Curtis W. Stevenson, gent., to be quartermaster.

11th Middlesex Rifles—Chas. J. Smith, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

19th Middlesex Rifles—Chas. J. Kenwood, gent., to be second lieut. (super.),

20th Middlesex Rifles—Major Percy Mitford resigns his commission.

26th Middlesex Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Henry Norris to be lieut.; May 20, 1876. Sub-Lieut. Clement Hirst to be lieut.; March 14, 1877.

37th Middlesex Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Mark F. Sayer to be lieut.; July 12, 1876.

1st Administrative Battalion Monmouthshire Rifles—Major F. J. Justice to be lieut.-col.

2nd Monmouthshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. John J. Skinner to be lieut.; June 30, 1875. Sub-Lieut. Tudor L. Skinner to be lieut.; Sept. 8, 1876. Second Lieut. Thomas H. White to be lieut. Second Lieut. Harold R. Lawrence resigns his commission.

11th Monmouthshire Rifles—John A. Shepherd, Esq., to be capt. Chas. H. R. Harris, gent., to be lieut. David E. Williams, gent., to be second lieut.

11th Northumberland Rifles—Frederick H. Taylor, gent., to be second lieut.

12th Northumberland Rifles—John McClure Clark, gent., to be lieut. David G. L. Johnston, gent., to be second lieut.

5th Renfrewshire Rifles—Walter Blackwood, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd Somersetshire Rifles—Hon. Assist.-Surgeon Edmund L. Bagshawe, whose resignation appeared in the London Gazette of June 28, 1878, is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the corps on his retirement.

19th Staffordshire Rifles—Act.-Surgeon Wm. R. Brunton resigns his appointment. Herbert John Fausset, gent., to be acting surg.

24th Surrey Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Frederick H. Phillips to be lieut.; Aug. 23, 1876.

4th Sussex Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Alan Richardson to be lieut.; June 23, 1877.

1st Tower Hamlets Rifles—Lieut. John H. Burt resigns his commission.

2nd Warwickshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Walter H. Marriott to be lieut.; April 4, 1877. Sub-Lieut. Arthur E. Jagger to be lieut.; May 2, 1877.

8th Warwickshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Walter W. Neale to be lieut.; Dec. 6, 1876.

1st Administrative Battalion East Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—The services of Surgeon Robert Grieve are dispensed with.

3rd West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Second Lieut. Edward H. Thwaites to be lieut. Second Lieut. George H. Müller to be lieut.

23rd West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Herbert Rouse to be lieut.; April 18, 1877.

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ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Oct. 15.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Oct. 16, 1878:—

Royal Artillery—Major Wm. A. P. Wyllie to be lieut. col., vice H. R. Martin, who retires upon a pension. Capt. and Brevet Lieut. Col. Arthur F. Pickard, V.C., to be maj., vice Wyllie. Capt. Price Lewes, from the Super. List, to be capt., vice H. H. Hardinge, placed upon the seconded list, Oct. 1, 1878. Lieut Robt. Samuel Watson, from the Seconded List, to be capt.. vice Brevet Lieut. Col. Pickard, V.C. Lieut. George S. Mainguy, from the Super. List, to be capt., vice R. S. Watson, placed upon the Seconded List. Lieut. the Hon. Fredk. W. J. Shore, to be capt., vice K. F. Maclachlan, who retires upon a gratuity. Lieut. John Wm. Marsden Newton to be lieut. upon the Seconded List. Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Wm. T. Brown, C.B., (late Bengal), retires upon a pension. Lieutenant Samuel G. Fairtlough to have the local rank of capt., whilst employed as an instructor at the Royal Canadian College, Canada; July 18, 1878. The second Christian name of Capt. D. F. Jones, promoted in the Gazette of Aug. 6, 1878, is Forde, and not as therein stated.

16th Foot—For, Lieut. Arthur Richard Cole-Hamilton, from the Royal Tyrone Fusiliers Militia, to be second lieut., &c., &c., as stated in the Gazette of Oct. 4, 1878, Read, Lieut. Charles Moorehead Hamilton, &c, &c.

29th Foot—Lieut Edwd. J. H. Spratt to be capt., vice F. C. H. Littledale, retired; Aug. 31, 1878.

53rd Foot—Lieut. Chas. Moorehead Hamilton, from the Royal Tyrone Fusiliers Militia, to be second lieut., &c., &c., as stated in the Gazette of Oct. 4, 1878, Read, Lieut. Arthur Richard Cole Hamilton, &c., &c.

Brevet.

Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Wm. T. Brown, C.B., Royal (late Bengal) Artillery, to have the hon. rank of major gen., upon retiring on a pension.

Lieut. Col. Henry R. Martin, Royal Artillery, to have the hon. rank of col., upon retiring on a pension.

War Office, Oct. 18.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear, date Oct. 19, 1878:—

Royal Horse Guards—Lieut. the Hon. Wm. C. Wentworth-Fitz William to be capt., vice Chas. R., Lord Carrington, retired; Sept. 25, 1878.

5th Dragoon Guards—Lieut. Maunsell Bowers to be capt., vice J. Moore, retired; Aug. 21, 1878.

7th Dragoon Guards—Sub Lt. Digby de la Motte du Boulay to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1877.

9th Lancers—Second Lieutenant Malcolm O. Little, from the 17th Lancers, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. B. Gough, promoted.

16th Lancers—Capt. Henry A. Robinson retires from the Service, receiving the value of his commission.

21st Hussars—Lieut. Arthur T. Fisher to be capt., vice the Hon. Henry G. L. Crichton, seconded for service on the Staff: Sept. 7, 1878. Second Lieut. Herbert V. Burn, from the 1st Foot to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. E. Kitson, promoted.

Royal Artillery—Vet.-Surgeon Herbert Bachelor resigns his commission.

Royal Engineers—General and Col.-Com. Henry B. Turner (late Bombay) to be placed upon the Retired List, under the provisions of Article 138 of the Royal Warrant of May 1, 1878; Aug 15, 1878. The removal of Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Alex. Davidson (late Bombay) from the Super. to the Effective List, and his promotion to col., as notified in the Gazette of 1st inst., to be antedated to Aug. 15, 1878, vice J. G. Fife, removed as a General Officer. Lieut. Col. Brevet Col. Chas. J. Merriman, C.S.I. (late Bombay) to be col., vice J. Jones, removed as a General

Officer; Aug. 28, 1878. Maj. and Brevet Lieut. Col. Joseph Bonus (late Bombay) from the Super List, to be lieut. col., vice Brevet Col. C. J. Merriman, C.S.I.: Aug. 24, 1878.

Grenadier Guards—Second Lt. David A. Kinloch, from the 96th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. and Capt. W. S. Kenyon-Slaney, promoted. Lieut. John Townshend St. Aubyn, from the Royal Cornwall Rangers Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. and Capt. H. J. L. Bruce, promoted.

Scots Guards—Lieut. the Hon. Arnold A. C. Keppel, from the Dorset Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Sub Lieut. F. W. R. Ricketts, resigned.

Brigade Depot—Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Fredk. R. S. Flood, C.B., is placed on half-pay for service on Staff; Sept. 21, 1878.

1st Foot—Lieut. Henry Gardner to be capt., vice R. M. Ireland, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Departmen; Sept. 25, 1878. Lieut. Edwd. A. Altham to be adjt., vice Lieut. A. W. Mitchell, deceased.

4th Foot—Lieut. Francis Sladen Marrison, retires from the Service, receiving the value of an ensigncy.

7th Foot—Major and Brevet Lieut. Col. Alfred G. Daubeny to be lieut. col., vice Brevet Col. G. F. Herbert, placed on half-pay; Sept. 25, 1878. Super. Capt. and Brevet Maj. Wm. B. Colvin to be maj., vice Brevet Lieut. Col. A. G. Daubeny; Sept. 25, 1878. Sub Lieut. Richard D. Garnons-Williams to be lieut. Dated Jan. 17, 1877, but his commission as lieut. in the Army to bear date Feb. 26, 1876.

10th Foot—Lieut. James de Hoghton to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. N. P. O'Gorman, promoted; Sept. 14, 1878.

17th Foot—Lieut. F. Parkinson to be capt., vice G. J. Maillard, retired on half-pay. Dated Sept. 25, 1878.

18th Foot—Lieut. Benjamin G. Humfrey, from the Donegal Militia, to be second lieut., vice E. M. Edwards, transferred to the 29th Foot.

19th Foot—Lieut. Granville Sharp to be capt., vice R. E. Huxham, retired on a pension. Dated Sept. 25, 1878. Lieut. Fredk. B. Briggs to be adjt., vice Lieut. E. A. Bruce, who has resigned that appointment; Sept. 17, 1878.

22nd Foot—Captain Henry L. Nicholls retires on a pension. Lt. Thos. E. G. Molyneux is seconded for service on the Staff.

23rd Foot—The appointment as adjt. of Lieut. the Hon. R. H. Bertie is antedated to March 9, 1878.

26th Foot—Lieut. Wm. C. H. Anton to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. H. E. Railston, appointed adjt.; Sept. 14, 1878.

30th Foot—Second Lieut. Henry L. Gallwey, from the 58th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. A. J. Goldie, promoted.

40th Foot—Sub Lieut. Geo. W. Maxwell to be lieut. Dated Jan. 17, 1877, but his commission as lieut. in the Army to bear date Oct. 11, 1876. Lieut. Chas. S. Foote, from the Royal Monmouthshire Engineer Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. F. W. G. H. Nelson, promoted.

44th Foot—Lieut. Piers Edgcumbe to be capt., vice W. J. E. Graham Sutherland, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Aug. 7, 1878. Lieut. Seton Churchill to be capt., vice A. J. Roberts, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Aug. 21, 1878. Lieut. Herbert F. Hill to be capt, vice R. B. Bald, seconded for service as an adjt. of Auxiliary Forces; Aug. 25, 1878.

47th Foot—Lieut. Wm. H. R. Gunnar to be capt., vice H. Cooper, seconded for service on the Staff: Sept. 18, 1878.

56th Foot—Capt. Alfred G. W. Hemans, from the Madras Staff Corps, to be capt., vice H. H. Kelly, who exchanges.

58th Foot—Lieut. Mackenzie Churchill to be capt., vice R. H. Harrison, retired; Sept. 25, 1878.

60th Foot—The promotion to

the rank of Lieut. Col., dated Aug. 21, 1878, of Maj. and Brevet Col. Herbert G. Deedes is cancelled. Super. Major and Brevet Col. Herbert G. Deedes retires on half-pay: Sept. 20, 1878. Maj. Jas. J. Collins to be lieut. col., vice Brevet Col. H. P. Montgomery, placed on half-pay: Aug. 21, 1878. Super. Capt. Wm. L. K. Ogilvy to be maj., vice J. J. Collins: Aug. 21, 1878.

64th Foot—Lieut. Roderick E. H. Gwynne, from the Royal South Wales Borderers Militia, vice D. E. D. Barclay, transferred to the 19th Hussars. The third Christian name of Second Lieut. Walhouse is de Kutzleben; and not as stated in the Gazette of Sept. 13, 1878.

76th Foot—Lieut. Percy Tatham Armitage, from the 3rd West York Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. B. M. Taylor, promoted.

82nd Foot—Lieut. Wm. Capel to be capt, vice N. Y. Lloyd, seconded for service on the Staff; Sept. 5, 1878.

83rd Foot—Capt. Thos. F. Gibbs retires from the Service, receiving the value of his commission.

84th Foot—Lieut. Randall C. A. Howe, from the Royal Down Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. Leppard, retired on a pension.

86th Foot—Hugh H. Stewart to be lieut.; Oct. 11, 1877.

87th Foot—Lieut. Fredk. Carpenter is seconded for Service on the Staff.

88th Foot—Sub Lieut. Dayrell T. Hammond to be lieut.: Oct. 6, 1878. Sub Lieut. Daniel J. N. Webb to be lieut.; Oct. 11, 1877.

91st Foot—Lieut. Colin Campbell resigns his commission.

93rd Foot—Capt. William F. Fullarton retires on a pension.

96th Foot—Lieut. Graham R. Pearce, from the 3rd Middlesex or Royal Westminster Militia, to be second lieut., vice H. R. M. Porter, transferred to the 1st Dragoons.

100th Foot—Second Lieutenant Arthur Huddart, from the 70th Foot, to be second lieut., vice W. R. Goold-Adams, transferred to the 1st Dragoon Guards.

2nd West India Regiment—Lieut. Wm. M. Longfield resigns his commission.

Brevet.

The promotions in succession to General J. M. B. Fraser-Tytler, C.B., Bengal Staff Corps, are in consequence of that officer's retirement on a pension, and not under the provisions of Article 138 of the Royal Warrant of May 1, 1878, as announced in the Gazette of Sept. 4, 1878.

Lieut. Col. Chas. FitzGerald, 49th Foot, to be col.: Oct. 4, 1878.

Capt. Henry L. Nicholls, 22nd Foot, to have the hon. rank of maj. upon retiring on a pension.

Capt. Wm. F. Fullarton, 93rd Foot, to have the hon. rank of maj. upon retiring on a pension.

The following promotions to take place consequent upon the removal of Gen. H. B. Turner, Col.-Com. Royal (late Bombay) Engineers, to the Retired List under the provisions of Article 138 of the Royal Warrant of May 1, 1878:—

Lieut.-Gen. Henry Righy, Col.-Com. Royal (late Bengal) Engineers, to be gen.; Aug. 15, 1878.

Maj.-Gen. George W. Walker, Royal (late Madras) Engineers, to be lieut.-gen.: Aug. 15, 1878.

The promotion of Col. James G. Fife, Royal (late Bombay) Engineers, to maj.-gen. as notified in the Gazette of the 1st inst., is antedated to Aug. 15, 1878.

Col. Jenkin Jones. Royal (late Bombay) Engineers, to be major-gen., vice C. V. Wilkieson (late Madras), deceased; Aug. 24, 1878.

Memoranda.

Major and Brevet Col. Herbert G. Deedes, half-pay, late 60th Foot, retires from the Service by the surrender of his half-pay; Sept. 20, 1878.

Lieut. Col. Peter H. Scratchley, Royal Engineers, to have the local rank of col. whilst employed on special duty in Australia.

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TRAVELS IN PERSIA.

By Commander G. Nelson Pomeroy Mason, late I.N.

(Edited by C. R. Low, I.N., F.R.G.S.)

CHAPTER III.

Persepolis to Ispahan.

The days lengthening a little as we advanced northward, shortened the long evening hours; but my means of lighting my cell, or bala-khoneh, after dark, were limited, as a rule extending to one or two tallow dips in an empty bottle. As for companionship, I could fall back upon my charvadar, and the zabit, or kedkhodah, (head man of the village,) or even my bawachee, Cyclops, but their conversation at the best only referred to the journey on the morrow, the acquirements of our beasts of burden, the rapacity of the Governor, (or whoever the village belonged to,) and the present high price of grain. As regards this last source of complaint, the price was never lowered, but continued to increase during my sojourn in Persia, which was due to a variety of causes, among others want of snow on the mountains and rain in the valley, while the iniquitous monopolies of corn in the cities and towns by both temporal and spiritual leading officials, were gradually tending to a ruinous state of affairs in Irak and Fars, which culminated in the terrible famine that devastated those provinces a few years later, extending even to Yezd, in Khorassan, which city, I believe, was more than half depopulated.

On the evening of my stay at Kinaureh, as there was no Institute or Debating Society, no lecture on the life of Nadir Shah, of Abbas the Great, or Hulakoo Khan, and no public or private library,—unless a copy or two of the Koran, a much worn "dewan" of Hafiz, or a thumbed copy of the "Shah Nameh" could be called such,—I had ample leisure to view once more from a distant standpoint the temple ruins I had seen in the day. Proceeding to the house-top of the abode I occupied for the night, and gazing out on the wide level valley of Mervdasht, with the camp-fires of the nomads sprinkled like huge fire-flies in the gloom in every direction, I could just discern, under the hill of Koh-e-Rahmat the "hill of mercy," the silent solitary remains of Jemsheed's palace, and the marble ruins of column and walls, brought out of the surrounding gloom, like an image of silver or glass, by the mild light of Cynthia's beams. In reviewing the sculptures I had there inspected in the day, the remarkable figure of the winged "half man" in the circle presented itself vividly before me. The opinion of travellers generally is in favour of this being the Ferooher, and Sir John Malcolm has introduced this mystical figure in a very amusing strain in his "Persian Sketches." Ac-

cording to the doctrine of Zoroaster, it is an associate of an existent being, with whose soul or spiritual part it is united before birth and after death. Mr. Binning also says that the Ferooher was considered part of every man's soul, being united therewith in the unseen world. According to Sir Henry Rawlinson, the figure as found in the tablets of Behistun, near Kermanshah, which answers to the same mysterious figure on the tomb of the Kings at Persepolis, is a representation of the God Ormuzd, and that Darius is represented in the act of immolating his rebel satraps in his honour. Another authority, the Rev. Mr. Foster,* in his work, "The One Primeval Language," is of opinion that the figure represented at Behistun and Persepolis is the sculptor, who takes the opportunity of thus immortalising himself; and further he expresses his belief that these works of art in Behistun and Persepolis were executed by one and the same artist. Grotefeund's original mode of interpreting these mysterious characters was developed so fully and successfully by Rawlinson, Hinks, and others, that there can be little doubt of their having discovered the clue to their interpretation.

To leave Persepolis without visiting the celebrated sculptures on the rocky bases of the high hills which confine the limits of the valley of Mervdasht to the north-west, would have been unsatisfactory, so I devoted the last day of my visit to Takht-i-Jemsheed and its neighbourhood, to a parting inspection of the Takht itself, and to the Nakshi-i-Rustam, by which name the rock tablets are known to the present inhabitants. In riding round the solid walls of the Takht, which rise some sixty feet above the plain in parts, I remarked a fine cuneiform inscription in excellent preservation on the southern face of the platform outside, which might escape the eye unless a careful examination was made, and I also again admired the compact and solid manner in which the platform has been erected, the fine preservation of the staircase, up which I have often ridden without any difficulty, and the size of the massive stones of which the edifice is composed. The remark of another writer, referring to the great temple of Baalbec, would apply equally to the masonry here of Persepolis:—"The corresponding surfaces of these enormous stones are squared so truly that the fit is most exact. I could not thrust the blade of my knife between the stones."

Leaving the Takht and proceeding round the Koh-e-Rahmat, the name of the mountain rising above the ruins, a ride of rather more than two miles brought us to the rock tablets in a recess in the hills, which go by the name of the Nakhshi Rejeb. There are three of these, over which the water trickles, and they are half hidden by moss and grass, but they have suffered most from

* Mr. Foster's remarks on the name of Cyrus, in connection with these inscriptions, and also of the Kur Aub, and the ruins in the neighbourhood of Moorgaub, are of interest, as the latter have been seldom visited by travellers.

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Mohamedan Vandalism, which has defaced them to no inconsiderable extent. Experts are divided as to the purpose of these ancient records, some being of opinion that they commemorate the deeds of the Arsacidæ, and others of the Sassanian Monarchs. It is, however, generally considered that the greater portion of these picturesque and beautiful sculptures represent the victories of Sapor, or Shahpoor,* the second King of the Sassanidœ dynasty, over the Roman Emperor Valerian. With few exceptions the tablets themselves tend to show the cruelty experienced by the captive represented, whether King or whoever he may be, and as far as I could make out, the other larger and better preserved sculptures of Nakshi-i-Rustam are but a repetition of Shahpoor's tender mercies. History has handed him down as a cruel conqueror and tyrant, which few can doubt who view these records.

To reach the finer sculptures of Nakshi-i-Rustam, about four and a half miles from the Takht, we had to cross the Pulvar, but whether intentionally or not, the guide we had procured at Kinaureh missed the ford, and the river, swollen now in spring, nearly brought us to grief. Scrambling out the best way we could, we hastened to the Nakshi-i-Rustam in a sodden and shivering state, and I sat down on the old ruined fire temple, or whatever it may be, opposite the tablets on the rocks, to dry myself in the sun, hungry, wet, and tired, and in anything but a pleasant frame of mind for reviewing Shahpoor's stony chronicles. Above these reminders of a race that has never been very particular as to the keeping of the ten commandments, and who, apparently, have endeavoured to display themselves in their records as more like wild beasts than human beings, there were three more tombs of the Kings nearly precisely similar to those in Persepolis; these remains are perhaps seven hundred years earlier in date than the sculptures underneath. There appear to have been three different candidates at three very different periods

* Near the City of Shahpoor, about eighty miles west of Shiraz, which was the capital of this monarch, there are, also, carved upon the rocks, representations of Shahpoor holding the Roman Emperor, Valerian, prisoner, while he receives some ambassadors, who supplicate the release of the royal captive. To Shahpoor, says Malcolm, Persian historians also ascribe the foundation of the modern city of Shuster, situated on the Karoon, about thirty-six miles to the east of the ancient capital of Shus, or Susa, which means, in Pehlivee, "pleasant," Shuster being the comparative. The same tradition adds that Shahpoor compelled his Roman captives to aid in building this city, and travellers are shown the tower where the Persians believe that Valerian was confined. A most remarkable feature here is the dyke, or bund, thrown across the Karoon, in the vicinity, by Shahpoor, to turn the course of that river into a channel more favourable to agriculture. This dyke, formed of cut stones, cemented by lime, and fastened together by clumps of iron, is 1,200 feet long and 20 broad, and it is still in fairly good repair, and fulfils its original purpose of fertilizing the plain of Dizful, though constructed about A. D. 260, thus surviving the sumptuous palaces of those luxurious monarchs. A feature of interest in the ruins of the ancient city of Susa, which extend along the banks of the Karasoo River for a distance of twelve miles, is the reputed tomb of the Prophet Daniel.

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for future fame in many remains found here or elsewhere. First the architects and builders of Takht-i-Jemsheed, Pasagardœ, and Istakhr, also Razes, or Rhe, and its ruins close to Teheran; in the second place, Shahpoor and others have tried their best to immortalise themselves here, at the Shahpoor rocks, at Kazeroon, and near Hamadan; and lastly, in a downward scale of work and design, we come to the ridiculous and paltry effigies of Futteh Alli Shah and Timour Mirza, before mentioned at Shiraz and at Takht-i-Timour. I was scarcely aware of what was to be found at Nakshi-i-Rustam when I visited the place, and was unprepared like many others to reach these tombs, although they are not so inaccessible as Sir Robert Ker Porter shows. In his account he says:—"My mehmindar was at his stories and forebodings again for tempting such demon wrought places; but the peasantry of this district seem to know better than to fear either deer or difficulty, and one of them more active and sinewy than the rest, managed to scramble up the perpendicular cliff like a rat hanging by a wall, and gaining the ledge of the platform or vestibule to the tomb, he lowered down a rope by which some of his humble companions assisted themselves in ascending. I followed the example by fastening the rope round my waist, and by their united exertions was speedily drawn up to the place of rendezvous." It was a pity, in this instance, Sir R. K. Porter was not rewarded better for his trouble, and I could not but help wishing for a few hundred English sappers or navvies, with efficient shovels and pickaxes, to dig into the interior of these sacred mausoleums. Perhaps after all little might be added in this way to our knowledge of their secret history, but all around, to what is known as the Peacock's Throne, and further to the northward, in the ruins of Istakhr, as it is called to this day, there must be a vast field for the excavating antiquary. One looks forward to the cuttings and tunnels of a Shiraz and Ispahan line of railway as a means of revealing many a treasured memorial at present hidden in the wide valley around.

In returning to Kinaureh we were more fortunate in recrossing the river. Many of the Eliaut ladies came out of the numerous black goat's-hair tents forming their abodes, as we passed, and some coins and stones were offered for sale, and other relics supposed to have been found near the ruins; I left most of these questionable treasures to future visitors who might be blessed with a larger share of credulity and tomâns than myself. Having to leave Kinaureh early next morning, we inspected our commissariat department, and invested in a kid for about 3*s.* 6*d.* English from a neighbouring farm. I should not omit to mention the village of Bendameer, in the valley of Mervdasht, which is a pretty spot, and affords a good sketch with its lofty, precipitous rock, and the bridge and "bund," or embankment, from which it derives its name, which was constructed more than 900

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years ago by Azad-ud-dowlah. And so we bid good-bye to the Nakshi-i-Rustam, the sculptures of which are among the most notable objects in the line of route between Persepolis and Ispahan.*

In continuation of our journey to Ispahan, there were two routes we might pursue; one, the ordinary winter route leading through Moorghaub, with the interesting ruins of what is believed to have been the site of Pasagardæ, and through the fertile plain of Akleed to Yezdikhaust. The other road is shorter and more direct, keeping a little to the westward and passing over a more elevated region, with fewer villages but finer pasture, and joining the caravan road at Yezdikhaust. It was, however, too early in the season for the shorter route, for snow would be still found in the higher parts, and this circumstance, together with a wish

* Rustam, or Roostum, whose adventures, as described in the "Shah Nameh" (Book of Kings,) by the great national poet, Firdousee, a native of Toos, in Khorassan, bear a singular resemblance to those of the Greek Hercules—whose "Twelve Labours" may be compared to the "Heft Khan," or "Seven Stages" of Roostum—was the son of Zal, the hereditary Prince of Seistan, and is said to have lived to the age of 400 years. One of his first achievements was the conquest of the Kullah Suffeed (white fort) in the province of Fars, about seventy-six miles north-west of Shiraz, situated on an almost perpendicular hill, which he effected by disguising himself as a dealer in salt, and entering the castle with bags carried by camels, supposed to contain that commodity, but each having an armed man.

His next great deed was as leader of the army of the Persian King, Kai Kobad, against the dreaded Turanian invader, Afrasiab, who had crossed the Oxus. With the tremendous club of his ancestor, Sam, Roostum slew no less than 1,160 men with his own hand, and seized the mighty Afrasiab from off his horse by the girdle, which broke, thus releasing his prisoner. Again, when his Sovereign, Kai Koos, was taken prisoner by the combined troops of the King of Mazanderan and the Deev-Suffeed, (White Demon,) and confined in a strong castle, Roostum slew this mysterious personage in single combat, upon which all the other Deevs submitted to Kai Koos. The King of Mazanderan continued to resist, but was finally killed by the lance of the invincible Roostum. It is in his warfare with the Deevs that Firdousee celebrates the Heft Khan, or Seven Stages of Roostum, which consist of his conquering, with the aid of his steed, Ruksh, a lion, a serpent, a sorceress, a giant, an army of Deevs, and at last the King of the Deevs, or White Demon. When the King of Hamaveram took the unlucky Kai Koos, the services of Roostum were again called into requisition, and he not only defeated the Kings of Egypt and Barbary, who had come to the aid of his country's enemies, and released his Sovereign from confinement, but expelled Afrasiab from Persia. Firdousee relates the episode of his combat with his unknown son, Sohrab, which he describes as "a tale full of the waters of the eye." Sohrab, the Turanian warrior, was only less redoubtable than his father, but was overcome at the third encounter; and when in the agonies of death, warned his conqueror to shun the vengeance of the mighty Roostum, his sire, at the same time displaying, under his coat of mail, a seal which his mother had placed on his arm. Firdousee's account of the battle and of the grief of the bereaved mother, is one of the finest passages in his great poem, the 'Shah-Nameh.' When Kai Koos' son, Siawush, was murdered by Afrasiab, a Persian army marched to avenge the deed under the command of Roostum, who slew, in single combat, Peelsoom, a great hero, who had overcome two Persian chiefs. As none of his nobles would face the redoubtable Roostum, Afrasiab entered the lists, but was unhorsed, and escaped with difficulty. His other great achievements were the defeat of the Tartars in several battles, the overthrow of the Emperor of China, whom he takes prisoner, his conflicts with his unknown grandson, Boorzoo, son of Sohrab, leader of the army of Afrasiab, and his last personal combat with the invulnerable Isfundear, whom he slew.

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to see all I could of the few ruins left in this most interesting and classic land, decided me in the choice of the former route. The month of May had well advanced, and already the larger Kafilahs, proceeding to and from Ispahan and Shiraz, were travelling by night, as the sun is too powerful in the middle of the day; and as my muleteer was paid by the day for his mules, he was glad to fall into my plans of making rather short stages, and stopping if necessary at any interesting points on the road. But Persians are Persians everywhere, and study their own interest entirely, and although Jaffir Khan was a very favourable specimen of one, and had travelled with Europeans previously, he never gave me any information, even if he possessed it, (which was doubtful,) of any mosque, ruin, shrine, or village that might be worth stopping at for a few hours unless it suited his own convenience, or, I should rather say, the welfare or convenience of his baggage animals, which, as viewed from the rather narrow mind of Jaffir Khan, was at all times a paramount consideration.

On first leaving Kinaureh, I had a lesson on the idiosyncrasy of the Khan ("my lord"). I had expressly stipulated that he should pass by the Peacock's Throne and the ruins of Istakhr, and even held out a small bribe as a douceur for my mules, these ruins being about a farsakh or a little more from Kinaureh. It happened to be dull and squally when we started, and as we passed the Takht with its massive old walls and few remaining ghost-like columns, the wind rushed down past the mountain at its back in heavy gusts, causing us to wrap what remained of our coats and "nummads" closely round us; but these squalls soon cleared away, and as the sun came out, I could not help being reminded of the old fable, and nummads, and felt coat, and Jaffir Khan's dubious looking Kapanek (or Persian Ulster) were transferred from the owner's back to the mules. Asking whether we were near the ruins, I was told by the worthy Jaffir that we had left them half a farsakh in our rear, the fact being that he had as usual suited himself and kept on the opposite side of the valley; remonstrance was useless, and of course there were excuses in abundance. By his, Jaffir's, head and eyes I should behold wonders in a day or two, and as for the ruins, the Peacock's Throne, and even the Nashi-i-Rustam and Rejeb, still in sight on opposite sides of the rocky defile, were of small account. On the whole the day's journey, although rather long, was interesting. About six miles from Kinaureh we passed Doulatabad, a small village, where, almost for the first time in Persia, I saw roses blossoming, with vineyards and fruit trees. We had the usual ugly brown hills in company, and nearing them as we recrossed the Pulvar, or Moorghaub, river, which we had already once crossed opposite the Nakshi Rejeb, we found ourselves close to the village of Zey-i-doon, four miles beyond

Doulatabad, on our right in the valley of Seevund. Six miles higher up the valley we were opposite Seevund, a fine village, singularly picturesque in its situation, under a range of high rugged hills, with the houses perched one above the other up the sloping ascent. To get at this collection of one-storied mud dwellings, for such they nearly all are in Persia, is a steep and tiring pull, but the village is clean and the people civil, as I found a year or two afterwards on stopping a night. On this occasion it was full moon, and the scene with the houses, lying in an amphitheatre as it were, the huge rocks, and solemn grandeur of the shadow of the mountain, would have gladdened the heart of any superior master of the brush. On this occasion (1859) it suited Jaffir Khan to pursue his way two farsakhs beyond, to the walled village of Kowamabad, where I presume the grass in the valley and around was more plentiful than at Seevund. The road from Seevund to Kowamabad is stony, and the rocks around ugly and barren, but the Moorghaub river is often near, in fact we had to cross it once or twice again, and the high rocky banks on its sides are often planted with vineyards, cheenar and saffeedar trees, of small growth, it is true, but giving a refreshingly green and lively aspect to the brown arid hills around. Entering a small valley we came in sight of the walled village of Kowamabad, having a fort with only one doorway and the usual bala-khoneh, or upper room. Round the walls of this fort are arranged about sixty or seventy huts of miserably poor appearance, and not doing much credit to the Hajee Kowane, who holds the tuyool (or fief,) as he does Seevund. A few remarks about Mirza Alli Açkbar, or the Hajee Kowane as he is surnamed, may not be amiss here. Hajee Ibrahim, the Prime Minister (Sipar Salar) of Malcolm's time, was the Hajee Kowane's father, and the great Elchee tells us of the cruel end of Hajee Ibrahim and all his family, with the single exception of this same Hajee Kowane, who was sick and a child at the time of his father's murder.* The young child,

* The author of the "Sketches of Persia" gives the following account of this deed of treachery, and of the surviving child of the patriotic and able Hajee Ibrahim :—"The leave we took of Hajee Ibrahim was marked by some circumstances which made it truly affecting. This extraordinary man had become very intimate with the Elchee, to whom he communicated his anticipation of being soon put to death. 'The King and his ministers,' said he, 'are all anxious to destroy me. Your arrival has delayed for a time the execution of their designs, but it is only for a short period. I could easily save myself, but Persia would again be plunged in warfare. My object,' he continued, 'has been to give my country one King, I cared not whether he was a Zend or a Kajir, so that there was an end of internal distractions. I have seen enough of these scenes of blood; I will be concerned in no more of them. I hope I have made my peace with God, and shall therefore die contented.' The Elchee, who had succeeded in effecting an outward reconciliation between Hajee Ibrahim and the other Ministers, Meerza Seffee and Meerza Riza Koolee, took this opportunity of beseeching his friend to treat these personages with more consideration and respect. He also earnestly exhorted him to bear with more temper than he did, the occasional fits of ill-humour and violence of the King. 'I cannot alter my nature,' said the Hajee, 'it is plain and downright; besides, the conduct you recommend would be of no use, it would only

who was thus saved from the remorseless Futteh Ali Shah, has lived to be an old man, and, to use a popular phrase, has feathered his nest well, at the time of my visit being richer and possessing more dignity and power in Shiraz than the Shahzadah at that city himself. I believe Hajee Kowane was Governor of Bushire for some time, and having plenty of opportunities, took care they did not slip.

I slept on the roof of a house at Kowamabad, for it was mild and fine till towards dawn, when we burdened our animals to proceed onwards to Mader-i-Suleiman, a further six farsakhs distant. Our track to-day, for road, as we understand it, there was none, although level enough, had sufficiently trying features for man and beast. For the time rough and rugged kothuls are now even left behind, and I believe after leaving Moorghaub (the valley in which the celebrated tomb known to Persians as Mader-i-Suleiman is placed) a railway to Ispahan would easily traverse the dreary, and often desert, waste, carried as it might be over level valleys lying between inconsiderable hills. After passing

precipitate my fate. The fears of my enemies would lead them to conclude that it covered some deep design.' This conversation passed two days before our departure, and the day on which it occurred the Hajee appeared very melancholy. The Elchee had been in the habit of taking great notice of, and playing with, the Minister's youngest son, a fine boy of five years of age. The child, who was well trained in Persian etiquette, had remained quiet till he saw the Elchee move towards the door; he then ran after him, and in trying to lay hold of his clothes, fell on his face, and burst into tears. The Hajee, forgetting all forms in parental feeling, ran forward also, and taking his son in his arms, said: 'Thou hast a heart, my child! thou hast a heart! but God,' said he, in a lower tone to the Elchee, 'has informed him he is soon to lose his father, and taught him where to look for a friend.' The anticipations of the Minister proved just; though his fate was delayed for two years, chiefly from the influence of the King's mother, who well knew the value of such a servant as Hajee Ibrahim. Her death left the field open to his enemies, who fabricated every accusation that could work upon either the pride or fears of the King to make him destroy one whom they at once dreaded and hated. Their arts were but too successful, and the high and disdainful manner in which this truly great man repelled the charges brought against him, caused his being put to a cruel death. His brothers and sons were, according to the barbarous usage in Persia, included in his sentence. These, though residing in different parts of the kingdom, were all seized (so well arranged was the plan) on the same day, and the same hour. Some were put to death, and others lost their eyes; all their property was confiscated. Indeed, the plunder of the accumulated wealth of the family who had so long enjoyed power, probably tended, with other motives, in producing this melancholy termination to its fame and fortune. It is stated, that though the King endeavoured to persuade himself Hajee Ibrahim meant to rebel, and that his throne was endangered by the existence of this powerful subject, he was often visited with remorse at his own conduct towards him. On occasions of emergency to the State, he has been frequently known to reproach his present ministers with the loss to Persia which their arts and jealousies had caused, exclaiming: 'Where is Hajee Ibrahim? he alone was fit to give counsel to a monarch.' It may, perhaps, be received as a proof of the King's sentiments upon this subject, that, being aware of the affecting scene which had taken place with the youngest son of Hajee Ibrahim on the Elchee's leaving Teheran in 1800, he directed, on his second mission to Persia, that the sightless youth, who had enjoyed such favour as a child, might meet us on our advance, and receive, as he did in the notice and sympathy of his early friend, all the consolation which could be administered to one in his melancholy condition."

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through five or six miles of uninhabited country, we approached the entrance of a pass commanded on either side by low hills, where a guard was stationed to keep the road open. I had brought eight "toofanches" with me, as the road had been reported unsafe, and to suit their own convenience these military mercenaries handed me over to their apathetic companions on the rocks above, who told us "to go on in safety," the Kowamabad guard receiving a kran or two from my pocket, and a few maledictions in reserve from Jaffir Khan, who, consigning their fathers to an ill end, confidentially informed us they were less worthy of repute than the base-born Eeliaut robbers themselves, and declared he shrewdly suspected they were responsible for a halter and a spare "kapanek" that could not be found when we left Hajee Kowane's hospitable abode in the morning. I believe the old charvadah was right in his judgment, and for my part I was glad to be well rid of the ragged mob who, *par excellence*, styled themselves Sir-baz (Light Infantry.)

Leaving the outposts to their avocation, which appeared to consist of firing their muskets, occasionally varied by a succession of siestas, we entered another valley as dstitute of interest as the former one, only here we found hawthorn in abundance similar to our bushes in England, and now in full blossom. To one who had been abroad from home for nearly ten years, these remembrances of an English spring were most welcome, more especially in such a far off uncongenial region as we were going through. Pursuing our way by the banks of what is styled the River Polvar by some travellers, or the Aub Kur* by Porter,

* The following Persian story relating to this Aub Kur, or River of Cyrus, is told by Œlian, and illustrates the saying of our Lord regarding the gift of a cup of cold water, which has such a peculiar significance in the East:—"It happened on a certain day that Artaxerxes Mnemon was making a journey attended by his Court, and as the King passed along, his unexpected appearance greatly distressed a Persian traveller, Sinætes by name. This man, at a distance from home, was wholly unprovided with the means of presenting one of those gifts which the law required all subjects to offer to the Persian Monarchs on their royal progress, and with which he saw the surrounding multitude eagerly advancing; respect for law, and still more, reverence for his Sovereign, filled him with anxiety, but he did not long pause or hesitate, and ran at his utmost speed to the adjoining River Cyrus, scooped up some water with both hands, approached the King, and thus addressed him: 'King Artaxerxes, reign for ever. That thou mayest not pass by ungifted, I pay my duty with such materials and in such a manner as my case admits. I pay my duty with water from the Cyrus; should your Majesty deign to approach my dwelling, I hope to offer the best and richest gift in my profession.' Artaxerxes, filled with delight, addressed his subject in the following manner: 'I accept your gift with pleasure; I prize it more than the most splendid offerings; first, because water is in itself the most excellent of all things, and then because this water bears the name of Cyrus.' The story proceeds that Artaxerxes commanded his attendants to receive the water in a golden cup, sent to Sinætes a robe of honour, a golden cup, and 1,000 daries, and commissioned the messenger to say, 'The King commands thee from this cup to recreate thine own soul, as thou did'st recreate his, nor did'st suffer him to pass undignified and unhonoured, but honoured him as place and time permitted, and he wills that, drawing it with this cup, thou should'st drink water out of the river.' Thus has history recorded the name, the

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but which I would call the Moorghaub, we soon entered another defile, narrow and leading between two high hills of grey limestone, probably six or seven hundred feet in height. These rocky eminences were scarped perpendicularly, and quite commanded the pass on either side, with the clear stream running down the centre of the defile, having a pebbly bottom, (a rarity in Persia,) with some pollard willows on its banks, suggestive of English streams and meadows. The road up to this point had been passably good, but was now rough and narrow. Jaffir called this the Sangpoor valley or defile, and the space between the hills could not be more than two hundred and fifty yards. All this part must be historically interesting, being so near the ruins of the ancient city, and the fine stream and spring air refreshed us greatly, so that Jaffir Khan had recovered his equanimity and became communicative about Deevs, or Genii, having special reference to the ruins we were now approaching, which, for the present, were hidden from our view by intervening hills. Just before entering the Sangpoor defile, we were again introduced to four more ragged "rahdars," or guardians of the road, who reproached us in no measured terms for parting with our first detachment, alleging for their rough reception of the Khan and his cortege, (ourselves,) that only the day before, on that very spot, a shater bashee, or proprietor of camels, was robbed of all his camels by eight Eeliauts, and received a broken head into the bargain, a narrative that was not lost on our worthy Jaffir, who shook his head as these rahdars watched us from their outposts. A mile and a half from this, on the pass widening, we came to where the road led through a singular passage cut in the rock some hundred feet or so above the river. This road was not more than four feet wide for a distance of about one hundred yards, and had a parapet a foot high on the outside. No modern Persian governor could have constructed this, and the fact of its being ascribed here to Deevs and other unsubstantial beings, points to its antiquity, but I am not at all aware of its being mentioned by modern travellers, or what its history is. Not far from this we entered the valley of Moorghaub, the site of the interesting relics of what all antiquaries and travellers recognise as the ancient city of Pasagardæ, with the beautiful white marble monument held to be the tomb of Cyrus by classic historians, such as Xenophon and others, though by Persians declared to be the resting-place of Hanana, the mother of the wise and great King of Judea, for the name of Bathsheba was never known or recognised by the Prophet of Islam or his followers. Alexander, we learn from Arrian, twice visited this tomb of Cyrus, the son of Cambyses, and on the second occasion, found it despoiled of

act, and the reward of him who bestowed a simple handful of water. The names of proud satraps, and the catalogues of their costly donations, meantime, have sunk into silence and oblivion."

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its treasures, with the exception of the golden coffin, which the robbers had not been able to carry off; having built up the door with solid masonry, he left Aristobulus to restore the tomb to its former condition, and proceeded to Persepolis and Pasagardæ. The golden coffin and the Persian inscription—"I am Cyrus, founder of the Persian Monarchy," with the addition made by the great Macedonian conqueror: "Envy me not, therefore, the small portion of earth wherein my body lies enclosed,"—have both long since disappeared, but the identity of the tomb is established by a brief cuneiform inscription, which is five times repeated among the ruins of Moorghaub, and has been deciphered to mean "Ego Cyrus rex, Achœmenius."*

* Professor Rawlinson, in his edition of "Herodotus," (Book I., p. 282-3,) says:—"With respect to Herodotus' account of the death of Cyrus, the fact of the existence of his tomb at Pasagardæ, vouched for by Aristobolus, one of the companions of Alexander, much better reported by Arrian (Vol. I., p. 29,) than by Strabo, (Vol. X., p. 1036,) seems conclusive against the historic truth of the narrative of the Father of History. Larche's supposition that the tomb of Pasagardæ was a cenotaph (See 'Histoire d'Herod,' Vol. I., p. 509,) is contradicted by the whole narrative of Arrian, where we hear not only of the gold sarcophagus, but of the body also, whereof, after the tomb had been violated, Aristobulus himself collected and interred the remains. There can be no reasonable doubt that the body of Cyrus was interred in the tomb described after Aristobulus in 'Arrian.' According to Xenophon in his 'Cyropœdia,' (Book VIII., p. 6,) Cyrus died peacefully in his bed, though Ctesias states he was severely wounded in battle, and died in camp. Of these two authors, Ctesias is perhaps the most trustworthy, and on his authority, conjoined with that of Herodotus, it may be considered certain that Cyrus died a violent death, and that he received his death-wound in battle." In Book I., p. 210, Professor Rawlinson says:—"It seems tolerably certain that the modern Murgaub is the site of the ancient Pasagardœ. Its position with respect to Persepolis, its strong situation among the mountains, its remains bearing the marks of high antiquity, and above all, the name and tomb of Cyrus, which have been discovered among the ruins, mark it for the capital of that monarch beyond reasonable doubt; Murgaub is the only place in Persia at which inscriptions of the age of Cyrus have been discovered."

Mr. Layard writes:—"The readiness of the Persians to adopt foreign customs, even in religion, is very remarkable. Perhaps the most striking instance is the adoption from the Assyrians of the well-known emblem, consisting of a winged circle with, or without, a human figure rising from the circular space. This emblem is of Assyrian origin, appearing in the earliest sculptures of that country." (Layard's "Nineveh," Vol. I., chap. v.) "Its exact meaning," says Professor Rawlinson in his "Herodotus," "is uncertain, but the conjecture is probable, that while on the human head we have the symbol of intelligence, the wings signify omnipresence, and the circle eternity. Thus the Persians were able, without the sacrifice of any principle, to admit it as a religious emblem, which we find them to have done as early as the time of Darius, in the sculptures at Persepolis, Nakshi-Rustam, Behistun and other places. It is quite a mistake to conclude from this, as Mr. Layard does, that they adopted the Assyrian religion generally. The monuments prove the very contrary, for with three exceptions: that of the symbol in question, that of the four-winged genius, and that of the colossal winged bulls, the Assyrian religious emblems do not re-appear in the early Persian sculpture. A triple figure is sometimes found issuing from the circle, which has been supposed to represent a triune god, but this mode of representation does not occur in the Persian sculptures. Some religious emblems seem to have been adopted by the Persians from the Egyptians; as, for instance, the curious head-dress of the four-winged genius at Moorghaub, which closely resembles a well-known Egyptian form." It appears that Kerr Porter discovered cuneiform inscriptions in his ascent to the tomb of the Kings at Nakshi-Rustam. Sir H. Rawlinson says, "that the inscription shows this to be the tomb of Darius, and that he built it himself. Darius' Scythian expedition is also on the tomb at Nakshi-Rustam."

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There is a ruined caravanserai at Mader-i-Suleiman, and not far from it a collection of very poor and filthy habitations, but seemingly quite good enough for the worthy parishioners to whom they appertain. On proceeding to the tomb I found the door open but no signs of the custodian. There was a tolerably good piece of water at hand, with turf and a few flowers, and as the noonday sun warmed the rather sharp spring air, it was most enjoyable to discuss my "nahar," as Persians term the second breakfast. This was not much as a rule; eggs and fowls, it is true, were procurable, and sometimes a kid, but when this came to be shared at dinner between three of us, and sometimes with four, for I rarely forgot the worthy Jaffir and his assistant, a boy of fifteen, the reader can well imagine there was not much left for the Sahib's "nahar" next morning. As for the Khatir Bashee, with his usual Kazeroonee caution and distrust of his own countrymen, he put up his mules and my horse in what remained of the fine old caravanserai. This had originally been exceedingly well built of blocks of stone, and had the remains of a cufic inscription on the entrance. But I must hasten to describe the tomb itself, which everyone must regret is so disfigured and dirty. Originally built of enormous blocks of the purest white marble, the sarcophagus stands upon a high base or pedestal; the massiveness and beauty of the whole tomb is most impressive, standing as it does on a pyramidal base, which is placed on a succession of seven high marble steps, each smaller than the one immediately below it.* I looked inside, but there was nothing to be seen but a few common dirty lamps and a nearly effaced Arabic inscription near the door. The custodian now made his appearance, but said nothing, and on my quitting the building he

* Malcolm says of these ruins:—"Many insist that this is the tomb of Bathsheba, the wife of Uriah, the wife of David, and mother of Solomon. To this the only objection is, the belief or fact that neither Solomon nor his mother were ever within a thousand miles of this spot while living, and therefore it was unlikely to be chosen as the burial place of the latter when dead. Another account states it to be the tomb of Sûlimân, the tenth Caliph of the race of Ali; but against this conclusion there is decisive evidence in the very ancient style of the architecture and the inscriptions, which are in the arrow-headed character. Some antiquaries, puzzled by these objections, have gone back to remote ages, and determined it to be Pasagardæ, the resting-place of Cyrus." The dimensions of the tomb are given by Mr. Rich in his "Journey to Persepolis," p. 242-43. The grand pedestal has a base 43 feet long and 39 feet broad, and rises in six tiers or gigantic steps to the platform of the monument, which is at the height of 16 feet 9 inches from the ground. The walls of the sarcophagus itself consist of four layers of large stones, and the exterior dimensions of the structure are 20 feet 5 inches long by 17 feet 2 inches wide, and 11 feet high to the cornice; it is covered with a solid roof, whose exterior is arched. The entrance is in the north-western end, and above it are the marks of a tablet. The chamber is 10 feet 10 inches long, by 6 feet 10½ inches wide, and 6 feet 10½ inches high; it has a flat roof and a stone floor, each composed of two great slabs of marble joined in the middle. On the wall facing the south-west has been cut, in later times, an ornamental niche, with an Arabic inscription. The pedestals of twenty-four columns placed around at 14 feet apart, with scattered fragments of their shafts, mark an area of 400 square feet, which at one time enclosed the tomb of Cyrus.

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solemnly closed the door and shook his head, as I thought, at my presumption in looking into the tomb. I remarked the names of C. J. Rich, Tod, and Hyde, 1821, deeply carved in the marble of the upper step of all.

I hastened to inspect the remaining ruins already so fully investigated by Morier, Sir R. K. Porter, Binning, and others. About three quarters of a mile east of the tomb stands a solitary remaining pillar and three dilapidated pilasters; the pillar rests on a plain pedestal, ten and a half feet in circumference, and not fluted, and the pilasters have a short cuneiform inscription on them. The ground is strewed with ruins and remains of masonry; and, in one place, where excavations had been previously made, probably in the entrance to the fire temples which had originally stood here, and facing the north-west, there were the remains of four sculptured pairs of legs, two of human form, and the others something similar, but with an eagle's foot and talons. They were all broken off at the knees, so it was impossible to make out what they were intended to represent. Six hundred yards south-east of the column is a fourth pilaster having the figure of an angel, with two pairs of wings, clad in a long tunic and having a curious device growing from its head like antelopes' horns, with three globes surmounted with three conical objects. According to former travellers' descriptions, there was also a cuneiform inscription, but this I could not find, so it has probably fallen away. A further six hundred yards to the north-west of the pillar, is another pilaster with a small cuneiform inscription. Half a mile to the eastward of this is the low hill called Takht-i-Suleiman, ("Throne of Solomon,") which is faced on its north-west side with a platform of beautiful grey marble, rivalling the platform of Persepolis in the careful exactness of its structure, and massiveness and size of its blocks. The remains of a white marble building stand near, larger, but similar to what is usually considered a fire temple found at the Nakshi-i-Rustam. Of this only the north-west face remains, the remainder having all fallen away or been long buried in *débris*. A melancholy falls on the traveller in surveying these utterly desolate and scanty remains of what was once an extensive city. The beautiful tomb of Cyrus* rears itself prominently in this chaos

* Of Cyrus and the River Kur, and Pasagardæ, Mr. Foster writes:—"If any proper name occurs in the Behistun inscriptions, it is one earlier and greater than that of Darius, the name of the great Cyrus himself; I shall confine myself, therefore, to the simple statement that a word answering to the name of Cyrus stands prominently in one place of these inscriptions, neither written Kosroes, as by the Modern Persians, nor Kuros, as by the Ancient Hebrews and Greeks, but without the termination, as it is still preserved in the names of localities in Persia, simply Kur. Now the form of the name is sanctioned and certified by historical and local evidences of no ordinary force, for Œlian records the existence of a river bearing the name of Cyrus in the age of Artaxerxes Mnemon, and we learn from Sir R. K. Porter, that this river, in the immediate vicinity of Pasagardœ, the residence of the great Cyrus, now bears the name of Aub Kur, in other words, "The River of

of ruins, and under bleak and barren surroundings of mountain and valley, yet the time was, doubtless, when fruitful fields and vineyards flourished here, and art and commerce, with luxury and elegance, were displayed in an advanced degree.

The village of Moorghaub, to which we shifted our quarters in the evening, is scarcely more worthy of repute as a resting-place than Masjidi Mader-i-Suleiman, but there is a "chappar-khaneh" here, and I took up my quarters on the "sukoo," or raised platform of brickwork in the centre of the court, where the half-starved horses composing the Shah-in-Shah's posting stud are kept. These "chappar-khanehs," or post-stations, are placed at every stage between Shiraz and Teheran to the north, from Teheran to Hamadan in the west, and to Meshed in the east, as well as from Ispahan to Yezd, and from Teheran to Tabreez. Horses are maintained by Government, and a certain quantity of barley and straw furnished by neighbouring villages, and 200 tomans yearly from the Treasury. The "chappar-bashee," or head of the Postal Department, is supposed to have half a dozen animals always in readiness, but Government is often cheated, and the cattle kept in a disgraceful condition of starvation. I have tried this mode of travelling, and it would be far more expeditious and, in many respects, preferable to the tedious kafilah, but for the wretchedness of the cattle supplied. Once on the road, these poor brutes will travel well and expeditiously, and it is astonishing the amount of ground that can be covered in twenty-four hours when necessary.

At Moorghaub I received a visit of ceremony from the "Zabit," or head man, who brought me an offering of two rose-buds in his delicate paw. This ragged and dirty old Eeliaut chief was very anxious to know how our affairs were progressing in India, and also tried to induce me to exchange some filthy worn-out gileems, or "coarse carpets" and a broken-down post-horse, possessing only one eye, like its master, which was also chap (unlucky,) having a white leg. He took his leave when my evening banquet of stewed fowl and rice appeared, and, as he left, cast a wistful eye on my goods and chattels. I directed my servant to keep a more careful watch than usual on our effects.

Cyrus." Sir R. K. Porter (Vol. I., pp. 507-81) says:—"Strabo affords us a still better clue to the site of Pasagardæ, the city and palace of Cyrus, by telling us that the River Kur, or Cyrus, in the vicinity of Pasagardæ, flowing through hollow Persia, (cœle Persis,) the last term can only mean the deep vales of Seevan and Hageeabad, which open into that of Mervdasht, and the vale of Seevan is only separated from the plain of Moorghaub by the range of hills which bound the latter to the southward. Through the plains of Moorghaub, and amongst these hills, winds the Kur Aub, towards the valleys of Seevan and Hageeabad, traversing the whole of that hollow country till it falls into the Araxes, or Bendameer, something west of Persepolis. Moorghaub is distant from Persepolis forty-nine measured English miles. It lies north-east of that capital, as the course of Alexander's march in pursuit of Darius also distinctly fixes the site of Pasagardœ, and the Kur flows at no great distance from the ruins described.

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In the surrounding valley there was a fair quantity of wheat and barley, but both very backward. This is the so-called sirhadd (cold region,) and from Christmas to February or March the snow lies deep. At the present time the weather is delightfully cool, and, although we had a long march of nearly eight farsakhs, or fully twenty-eight miles before us to Dihbeed, we did not leave until after sunrise. A small cascade rushes over the rocks close to the western side of the village, which is divided into two distinct parts, in one half of which the Pulwaris live, and, on the opposite side, the Moorghaubis.* A fine stream of water was our companion for the first few miles on this day's journey, and the traveller cannot help wondering that more is not done in the way of cultivation and pasturage, for the rocky bosoms of the surrounding hills must be the home of many springs yet untapped, although to the westward there is more water and finer meadow land. On the road to Yezdikhaust, where the Eeliauts are to be met with in far greater numbers, their brood mares, with cattle, sheep, and camels, revel in the fine grass in the neighbourhood of Ansepas, Khooskezerd, and other villages, which lie on the opposite side of the chain of desolate-looking hills which more or less close in our horizon from Moorghaub to Shoolgistoon. For ten miles our route was unenlivened by any features of interest; a narrow stony road for the first five between high hills, merely a track over the rocky surface, then descending into a barren valley, and again, on approaching the hills, turning off at a sharp angle to the eastward, gaining by a steep descent a wide and utterly desolate space, only relieved by the solitary and filthy caravanserai of Khoneh Kirgaum, the dreary weather-beaten exterior of which encloses an area in a state of decay far from inviting. This delectable "house of rest" is some three and a half farsakhs from Moorghaub, and must be the *bête noir* of all travellers who have been compelled from time to time to rest there; fortunately we had the best part of the day before us, so we gladly turned our backs on the miserable pile, where not a soul was to be seen, and pushed on by a level and comparatively easy road to Dihbeed, ("Village of Willows.")

Aware of the dreary sameness of Persian scenery, and having yet some hours to spare before we arrive, the reader, perhaps, would permit me to introduce my *entourage*, at the head of whom is Jaffir Khan, the charvadar, or properly, Jaffir Alli, for where,

* Sir John Malcolm says:—"Both the form and the policy of the Persian Government have always disposed it to grant arable lands to the wandering tribes on the most favourable terms, but they seldom cultivate more than is necessary for their own consumption. The vast tracts of fine pasture lands which are allotted for their winter and summer residence are considered as part payment for their military service, but a tax is levied upon families according to their wealth, the number of their cattle and flocks, which is collected by their chief or by those whom he deputes to exercise his authority."

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or how, he earned the title of Khan (Lord) I cannot tell, unless I bestowed it on him when first leaving Bushire. Mahomedan though he is, and a pagan, good reader, in your ideas and mine, he is worthy of a brief inspection. There he stands, this sturdy, wiry, old man, with muscles and thews of steel, although on the verge of threescore and ten, with a complexion like a piece of brown hide, full of scars and wrinkles, and eyebrows from under which, notwithstanding his years, still peer out a pair of lustrous dark eyes; his rugged outline and his picturesque associates, his baggage animals with their large pack-saddles, their decorated halters, adorned with beads and bells, and often shells, are in keeping with the peculiar character of Persia's rude caravanserais and dreary mountain scenery—at least, I have learnt to associate the two together. Then regard his attire, from the felt and much worn brown conical cap on his shaven poli, with a skull cap beneath of cotton stuff, to his coarse, short, carpet socks, his enormous maliki (a sort of canvass shoes,) and his wide "shalwars," tight at the knees, exposing his brown and rugged legs. His under garment is a sort of shirt, with a loose frock, of green calico or some such stuff, very dirty and discoloured, and girded round with a leather belt; and, as a finish, if he goes into a town or large village, he winds an old Cashmere shawl round his "kulahi," or cap, not after the most graceful fashion, it is true. Jaffir has two small khorgeens (bags) on his ass, which follows the mules, stowed away in which, on one side, are a few changes of raiment, a better frock-coat of Manchester coloured cotton of an elaborate pattern, and perhaps a better pair of "shalwars;" and, on the other side, a very considerable quantity of "nun," or unleavened bread, heavy as lead, if new, and dry as the desert, if old. I am afraid to say how much of this nutritive "staff of life" goes into Jaffir's mouth every evening, and I had almost added, how many lies come out of it at the same time. Think what adventures the sturdy old Kazeroonee has met with in his toilsome life of more than fifty years, for he has followed the mules since he was the age of his boy Alli, who trudges along by his father's side. He has often been across the Dijleh, or Tigris, with coffins and pilgrims for Kerbelah to the west, and to Nujeef Alli also. Eastward, he has traversed the dreary sands between Yezd, Tubbhus, and Meshed, into Seistan and Beloochistan, visited even the zeilautz of Kandahar, smoked his kaleeon and sipped his cup of tea in the bazaars of Herat, and fallen in with Turcoman and Kurdish robbers on one side, and with Lurs, Bukhtiaris and Mamasunnees on the other, not to mention the plunderers between Koom and Ispahan, who are almost as bad, if not worse, as I know full well from experience. Jaffir has often battled with other forces, with snow wreaths and icy "barun," which proves fatal at times to those who encounter it in the perilous wintry passage, so beautifully described by

Fraser. He is not unfamiliar, either, with the poisonous swamps of Engilli and Resht, and the steaming backwaters that line the Caspian shore, in Mazanderan, or the steep and rugged passes and their lawless Kurdish population in Ardelan and the great Zagros range. The stock-in-trade of the old Khatir Bashee for this life of toil is, apparently, only four mules and a donkey, though he has, probably, a tolerable abode at Kazeroon; his worldly effects here may be summed up as a battered kaleeon, a mussuck, or leather bag, and a "dolchah" for water, which is at the service of all who require it. Old Jaffir told me to-day that he was at Lingar during the Persian War, at the time Sir H. Leeke fired on the place with the 8-inch guns of the 'Assaye' and 'Punjaub.' The Persian Governor employed his mules to carry ammunitionf or the troops from Shiraz to Lingar, and when our big guns commenced playing on the Persian Sirbaz, the latter took to their heels, the best thing, under the circumstances, they could do. This little affair of Sir H. Leeke's so disconcerted the Authorities, that they gave up the idea of attacking Bassadore, for which the Persian troops had been concentrated. Jaffir lost two thousand krans (allowing a small deduction for Persian exaggeration) at Lingar. I must leave the other members of my party till another time, and hasten on to Dihbeed.

If the morning had been cold when we left, the afternoon was warm enough, as the temperature varies greatly at different hours of the day, and a heavy shower made it chilly again in the evening. Reaching Dihbeed, the fine old caravanserai, better than that at Khoneh Kirgaum, received Jaffir Alli and his mules, but as it was not over clean, I put up in the "chapparkhoneh," which was in pretty good repair. On the road to-day, with the exception of a small kafilah of five or six horses proceeding to Shiraz for sale, we had fallen in with no one. Neither grass or corn was to be seen, but only occasionally a scanty vegetation; at one place, shortly after leaving Moorghaub, a few wild flowers adorned the waste, one of them a kind of hyacinth, the stem more than two feet high, and the flower, white with pink streaks, which would, if cultivated, be an ornament to any *parterre*. Game does not appear to be nearly so plentiful as, to judge from travellers' reports, one might expect; rock grouse are met with, and for the first time I saw antelope, but as for the wild ass it keeps to the eastward, near Koopah and Tuft, but even there it is getting scarce. The ibex is shot in the mountains, and also a mountain-goat, but if travellers really want sport, it is to be had more to the westward, in the hills and valleys of Khooskezerd, Mayeen, Imamzadeh, Ismail, Ansepas, &c. I believe, from accounts we heard, that lion, bear, wild boar, wolf, and other *feræ naturæ*, could be met with. There must be a considerable rise in the elevation of this plateau from the Moorghaub valley, as snow lay still in the clefts of the sur-

rounding hills, while dense masses of storm cloud rested on their crests, and the sun descended a sullen fiery red, the dreary brown hills catching his rays as he sank below the horizon, for the moment bestowing an unwonted brilliancy on their usually sombre appearance.

These chappar-khonehs, wretchedly run up, are fast falling into decay, and it is a moot question if the tough old caravanserai, half a mile off, built of brick of a far more durable kind than is to be seen in the present day, and which has stood the wear and tear of ages, does not offer more comfortable quarters for the night. I can see my people's camp-fire blazing up in the fine old gateway, and Jaffir Khan, no doubt, smacking his lips as he turns out his delectable provisions preparatory to preparing them for his son and himself. I believe firewood can be had of the assistant "dalandar," and perhaps "boosa" and barley; but eggs, cheese, or fowl, are not forthcoming. Every body who travels along this weary trudge between Persepolis and the "lovely valley of Kaleed," (as Malcolm calls it,) unless they are prepared to go through the experiences of a Welsh fasting-girl, or an Indian Fakir, under a vow not to touch food for a certain period, had better bring all their provisions with them. If an Eeliaut encampment is near, and these are only to be found at this season or in early summer, milk can be obtained, but no eggs, for they rarely keep fowls. Had I not secured a kid at Moorghaub, I should have fared badly, for the coarsest bread was hardly to be had. But our march in the day had won repose for us all, and *exeunt omnes* was the order of the day, or rather night, for both man and beast.

Leaving as the sun rose above the hills, we kept up the valley to the north-east. The morning was bracing, and old Jaffir took to his "nummad kapanek," or over-coat,—which I forgot to include in his inventory of kit,—and my servants also rolled themselves in whatever warm clothing they had provided themselves with at Bushire. A halt was called after we had gone a few miles, when Alli bustled about and brought a quantity of dried herbage for a blaze, round which all sat and enjoyed, not a *déjeuner à la fourchette*, it is true, but a substantial meal of goat's milk and cheese, hard-boiled eggs, and the leathery "nun," without fear of indigestion. The weather was delightful all day, scenery around as before, but the road very good, and the rain had caused the scanty herbage around to send forth sweet and refreshing odours, while even our old mules, my Rosinante, Firhaud, and the ass, commenced to gambol about and enjoy themselves to the peril of my goods and chattels. On the way we met the "chuppra," or post-courier, with the Shah-in-Shah's despatches, flogging on his weary steed. The same absence of eatables and drinkables, but Adam's Ale, is the state of affairs in

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the commissariat department. I have hitherto procured young barley for Firhaud, but here it is not advanced enough.

Four farsakhs from Dihbeed we entered a pass descending between two low hills; this, I should imagine, is the highest part of the country between Ispahan and Shiraz, possibly between five and six thousand feet above the sea, and travellers describe the spot as sometimes hard to pass in winter from snow. A little, even now, lay in places as we passed, though it was the second week in May. The road narrowed and became rougher as we advanced, having a stream of water running down the centre; white pieces of marble cropped out here and there amongst the brown limestone rock, and, as usual, there is a scanty wild vegetation for camels, donkeys, and sheep, the property of the Nomads, whose ever present tents are to be seen even here. Emerging from the defile, we enter on an extensive plain, and a mile beyond, the caravanserai and chappar-khoneh of Khonah Korrah is reached. However wretched the accommodation may be, we have to rest contented. This place is about eighteen miles from Dihbeed in an E.N.E. direction.

The reader will pardon a few more allusions to these most necessary, but neglected, havens of rest to the weary traveller. The size of the cells allotted to wayfarers vary in dimensions in proportion to the limits of the court of the caravanserai, round which they are built, and are raised three feet above the ground, and well paved with burnt brick, and often plastered inside. The floor can be swept, "nummads" and carpets or tarpaulins spread, and much of the dreary discomfort hidden, and draughts kept out. Of course the walls are often filthily dirty and blackened with smoke, but whether from the intense cold of winter or their generally exposed condition, vermin are not so very abundant. The afternoon we arrived at Khonah Korrah was quite chilly, although so far advanced in spring. No sooner was the cell cleared of "boosa" and dust, and nummads spread and tarpaulins fixed, than a heavy mountain storm of wind, hail, and rain set in, continuing all the evening, and dark clouds, charged with vapour, hung over the wild, gloomy and desolate hills. It is under such circumstances that a traveller feels the weariness of these caravan journeys.

However difficult of belief it may be, I have spent many amusing evenings in these old fortified dwellings, walking about the court when the moon has been shining overhead with unclouded splendour, all squalor and dirt hidden in shade, and her rays lighting up with faint and mysterious gleams the groups of humanity in the court and cells around. Usually the caravanserai is full at that time, and varied indeed are its occupants, Shahzadahs, Mirzas, and Mustowfis, their harems closely sheltered and walled in by their Tukht-i-rawans (caravans) or Kajawahs curtained round; in a descending scale we have independent tra-

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vellers like myself, dervishes, abbas douzis, (professional beggars,) and "looties;" also country village folk, merely going with their asses from one "balook" to another.

On this evening at Khonah Korrah, near my own cell in the caravanserai might be seen the faithful Abdullah (yclept Cyclops) torturing his remaining eye in the preparation of my evening meal, now being effected by means of a green, wood-fire, which is sending up its smoke over the party consisting of Jaffir, his boy, Mundoo (groom and valet) and a few friends, who, over the everlasting Kaleeon, are discussing the topics of the day. Calling Abdullah, I direct him to buy a kid if he can from the Eeliauts hard by the caravanserai, and to make tea for all the party. This puts them into good humour. Old Jaffir Khan says to me:—"Furdah (to morrow) by my head, and by your head, by the eyes of Abdullah, (a questionable compliment) and by the beard of Mundoo (who is innocent of that manly ornament) we shall see Ajaib" (wonders). "You tell a lie," said Cyclops, in simple vernacular, to be taken rather as a compliment than the reverse. "Khair (no), I tell the truth, the valley of Kaleed is a paradise: Aubash khubast (water is most excellent), hawa bisyar Khub (the air is very excellent). There is a bazaar as big as Ispahan at Soormek." But enough, my dinner is spread out on one of my chests, and a few fresh arrivals of a dancing bear, a tame lion, and the more troublesome visitors (looties), who have charge of them making their appearance, I withdraw to my lodgings forthwith, and at night am glad to avail myself of all the covering I can get, as the air is chilly after the rain.

As customary, we were fairly on our way to the next stage a little after sunrise. A fresh breeze from north-west had swept all the stormy clouds away, and we accomplished our day's work of six farsakhs under a cloudless sky. A fine valley lay in our front, the road level and good, and around us, large caravans of camels, with their surwans, or drivers, were grazing, on the rich aromatic herbage which was in far greater abundance here than in Dihbeed; hence the surwans do not hurry their beasts of burden but travel northward by easy stages. Their goods for the markets of Ispahan, Yezd, and Teheran, were mostly sugar, tea, and Shiraz tobacco, which is much esteemed in these cities, and indeed in all Persia. The tea, for the most part, finds its way from Bombay, but I believe it is even sometimes brought from Europe by Trebizond, and the sugar comes from Mauritius and Bombay by the Persian Gulf. Caravans from Bunder Abbas bring much of this to Kirwan and Yezd, where it is converted into what is known by the name of Kand, clarified but of a dirty yellow tint, and tasting strongly of oil which always sickened me so that I never used it, but preferred the very expensive luxury of loaf sugar from Europe.

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Some fifteen miles from our last resting place we came in full

view of what Malcolm calls the "beautiful and salubrious region of Akleed."* Salubrious it may be, but there is not much beauty about it, although it is spring now and the gardens are pretty in their fresh blossoms and leaves, just appearing. These gardens are surrounded by mud walls ten feet high, which detract greatly from their appearance. The villages, Soormek, Feizabad, Abadeh, and others in this valley have a thriving and lively look, and the district is of some extent and spread out at the foot of the hills, which bound it from north-west to south-east. On the western side however there is no cultivation, or in any other part but at Akleed which gives its name to the whole of this pretty region. In the numerous gardens of the different balooks, are found apple and plum trees, Zerd Allou (apricot), Allou balu, (a kind of plum), Saffeedars, or white poplar, walnut, chenar, and willow trees. There are many small forts of sun-dried brick interspersed amongst the gardens, and altogether this fertile region is well watered and cultivated with wheat and other grain, and presents an agreeable surprise to the traveller who has

* Sir John Malcolm writes of Akleed in his "Persian Sketches":—Akleed, where the Mission halted for some days, is situated in a beautiful valley, surrounded by hills and watered by clear rivulets. The gardens and groves in this town and its vicinity gives it an inviting appearance to a traveller in Persia, which, with the exception of Mazenderan, and other provinces on the Caspian, may generally be described as an arid country, without one great river, and with few perennial streams. If the report of the inhabitants of Akleed is to be believed, disease is almost unknown. A man upwards of eighty, who was praising the place to me, said, 'We die of old age, but seldom from other causes. Then look around and see what a charming place it is. I have heard a Moollah assert,' he added, 'that our town is called Akleed or Kaleed, (the Key,) and, on account of its beauty and salubrity, is considered as a key to Paradise.'" Malcolm tells an anecdote which speaks volumes of the oppressive character of the Shah's Government. The old man above mentioned, gaining confidence by the Envoy's kindness, added, "We were in terrible alarm when we first heard of your approach; we were told that the Elchee was carrying a number of pier-glasses of immense dimensions as a present to the King, and that the inhabitants of the country, between Abushsher and Shiraz, were not only seized and compelled to carry these mirrors, but that all the principal men in the villages through which they had passed were to be sent to Teheran and punished, because some of them had been broken. This, you may suppose, occasioned no small fright, particularly as we knew the Elchee's Mehmandar would take advantage of the pretext of carrying these presents to commit every species of extortion. You may therefore consider our joy to hear that the Elchee, to save the inhabitants from such sufferings, had resolved to have the mirrors carried by mules. We were, however, not quite relieved from our fears till the whole passed through this place some days ago. Every mirror in its case was like a Tekht-e-Rewan, (or travelling litter,) with shafts before and behind for the mules, by which it was carried. Then, besides twenty or thirty Ferrashes to take care of these precious glasses, there was a party of horse to protect them; and the Elchee's head-carpenter, Randall Beg, dressed like one of us, and with a fine beard, rode at the head of the cavalcade." The story of the grey-beard of Akleed was perfectly correct; and Sir J. Malcolm, though he incurred considerable expense in providing for the carriage of these unwieldy but valuable articles, acquired more popularity by the relief he gave to the poorer inhabitants on his route by this act, and by insisting on paying for the Soorat, or provisions furnished to the Mission, than by any others during his residence in Persia.

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been many days subjected to the barren, monotonous stages from Shiraz hither.

We have here at Soormek, and its neighbourhood, a striking example of the change running streams effect in this usually barren wilderness; the soil around seems poor and stony enough, yet wherever irrigation is carried on, excellent crops of wheat and barley are raised, and fruit and other trees flourish, I might almost say luxuriantly.

In the afternoon we experienced the usual heavy showers of hail and rain, with high winds, clearing off towards evening; the climate here at this season is most bracing, and the air sweet and fresh, the evenings being so cold as to render the camp fires of the muleteers, camel-drivers, and others, a pleasant attraction. The stage from Khonah Korrah to Soormek is nearly due north about twenty-two miles. If our Ispahan and Shiraz line of railway should ever be accomplished, a branch line could be carried to Yezd from Dihbeed, where a road, such as it is, exists at present, passing through Aberkoh, famous for its water jars (Koojahs), and through Tuft, nearer Yezd, where there is a famous waterfall.

Our next stage was at Abadeh, a fortified village of five hundred houses. There is a singular looking ruined castle, or some thing resembling one to be seen on leaving Soormek, which has a wide ditch, where a fine crop of wheat was springing up. This place is said to have been one of the palaces of Byram Ghoor, though old Jaffir ascribed it to Solomon and the Deevs. The structure is faced with sun-dried brick, and is full of odd little chambers and passages, and altogether would have repaid a minuter inspection than I was able to afford it in passing. Close by is the modern burial ground of the town, with a few rude mud "Imarets," and domed roofs attached.

Continuing up the valley in a northerly direction, we passed numerous other villages, similar to Soormek, which were all walled round, and had fine gardens attached. There was apparently much corn growing hereabouts, although the rough stony soil looked as barren as ever beyond the water courses. Arriving at Abadeh early in the day, it being only four farsakhs from Soormek, I was accommodated in a very much better house and apartment than ordinary, and was free from interruptions. I had little else to do than to examine my quarters, which were placed in a large court with a stream of water running through it, which if it continues all the summer confers a boon not bestowed on most Persian towns. The rooms were of a good height, and nicely stuccoed, with a border stamped on them of devices of roses and nightingales, and the ceiling usually painted wood-work was also of the same material as the walls. Cyclops went out to forage, but returned with poor success. Prosperity and cleanliness were not carried beyond my abode, which probably belonged to the

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Khed-Khodah (head man) of the village who was absent. I fear his affairs were too flourishing, and he had been deemed worthy of a small call on him for an extra income tax, or uninhabited house duty, fourteen days being allowed for the payment of the same, with unpleasant results if the money was not forthcoming. Abadeh was not much better off than Dihbeed, but as summer advances, vegetables and fruit supply the deficiencies. On our arrival, bread and eggs only were procurable.

Leaving the not over cleanly precincts of Abadeh, we went on early to Shoolgistoon. Every day my "master of the horse" kept my expectations alive with fallacious accounts of the merits of the Munzel to follow, which turned out little better, and sometimes worse than the preceding. Shoolgistoon possesses an Imaum Zadeh; and Moolahs are to be found hanging about its precincts, which, perhaps, accounts for the worthy Jaffir making some slight efforts at devotion before sunrise this morning—for the first time since leaving the "Abode of Science." This religious exercise did not last long, for a messenger arrived with dire vengeance on his visage; a halter had been missed from the post house at Dihbeed, and suspicions had rested on Jaffir Alli. It was too true a tale, and words sharp and savage ensued. Had the old Khatir Bashee not been under my protection, I fear he would have had his feet in the "feluk," but matters were brought to a happy issue after all by a kran or two compensation from me.

Our expectations concerning Shoolgistoon and its shrine were kept alive from hour to hour, and it was not until a very seedy mud mosque, once ornamented with verdant "kashee" tiling on its ruined dome, a rattletrap old quaint-looking fort constituting the town, and one of the most ruined caravanserais we had yet met with, displayed themselves to our expectant eyes, that we were aware the worthy Jaffir had again drawn on his own imagination, or on the credulity of his companions. There was the customary Chappar Khoneh where we rested during our stay, standing in the midst of a wild and uncultivated waste, for all the beauty of Kaleed and its villages had now been left far behind us. The old caravanserai and its surroundings form a dreary, but somewhat romantic, subject for an evening's sketch, and as the sun went down behind the gloomy storm clouds, casting deep grey tones of colour on the ruined old pile, and colouring the barren hills around with hues of purple and reddish brown, the whole prospect assumed a weird and wildly desolate appearance, fit background for deevs and ill-favoured gentry, of which the muleteers and others who visit these parts love to talk of. To me there was true poetry in the old building, its bastions ruined, its tottering doorless front out of the perpendicular, and its red-brick walls, still indicative of massiveness, crumbling into decay. Darkness fell whilst I was busy sketching it. Concerning the

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Imaum Zadeh, or shrine, there is nothing to say, except that it is supposed to cover the ashes of Mahommed, a son of the Imaum-Zein-ul-Abideen. Shoolgistoon is five farsakhs from Abadeh, and, notwithstanding the poverty of the place, which consisted of forty or fifty houses inside the old fort, we procured butter, eggs, and bread, all excellent, comparatively speaking.

Early in the morning we were on the move, travelling by the light of the moon, on to Yezdikhaust. The plain was quite level, and a fresh breeze blew in our faces from the north-west; at daylight we could see a little snow on the hills in the direction of Yezdikhaust. There are no signs of houses or cultivation of any description between the two places, but the ammoniacum plant, called Oshack by the Persians, but known scientifically in Europe by the name of Dorema Ammoniaci* is first seen here, but grows more abundantly northward.

The traveller comes suddenly in sight of the curious little town of Yezdikhaust, a style of place rarely met with even in Persia, although I have fallen in with one or two villages similar in appearance, as for instance, Tark, twenty miles from Ispahan. A ravine, half a mile wide and several in length, for the most part presenting a lively contrast of bright green to the rugged drabs and reddish greys of the surrounding ugly rocks, constitutes its immediate environs, the town itself being perched on an abrupt rock, lying north and south, close to the limits of the valley on one side, and, apparently, quite inaccessible, except on the southern extreme, where a drawbridge connects the town over a deep abyss. It is almost impossible to give a correct idea of this place without drawings. The houses are flat-roofed, two-storied, mud erections, ranged on each side of one narrow street, which runs through the whole length of the town. These dwellings, extending to the very verge of the cliff, present a grotesque appearance; most of them have rude balconies formed of logs of thick timber, projecting right over the precipice, some more than a hundred feet from the valley below. The masses of fallen rock at the base, the different open spaces in the mud dwellings, which perform the office of windows and doors; the irregularity of the frontage of the houses, often decorated with the bedding and clothes of the inhabitants;

* Although Dioscoxides has stated that the plant from which Ammoniacum is obtained is a native of Lybia, and named Agasyllis, and Pliny has also noticed it under the appellation of Metopium, yet both the plant itself, and its native soil were equally unknown, until Colonel Wright, R.E., discovered it in the vicinity of Yezdikhaust, and presented a dried specimen of it to the Linnæan Society. Mr. Don describes it as a new genus, and has also named it Dorema, from the Greek, (which means a "gift" or "benefit.") The plant, is called Oshack by the Persians, is perennial, and grows without cultivation on the plains between Yezdikaust and Kirmanshah, exposed to an ardent sun. The proper juice is so abundant, that upon the slightest puncture being made it instantly oozes forth, even at the end of the leaves. When the plant has attained perfection, innumerable beetles, armed with an anterior and posterior probe of half an inch in length, pierce it in all directions, when it soon becomes dry, and Ammoniacum is then picked off and sent, *viâ* Bushire, to India, whence it is exported to Europe.

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and the numerous large caves, and orifices in the foot of the rock itself, serving for refuges for their flocks in the severe weather,—all tend to increase its oddity. The place is far from cleanly, and the sewage is freely discharged over the precipices regardless of sanitary precautions. From this and its condition generally Yezdikhaust has earned the name of "Pokhloo Kala," or, "Filthy Castle." A fine and rapid strean flows close to the town, and makes the valley green with young wheat, which gives a fame to Yezdikhaust celebrated for the best bread in Persia.

I put up in the post-house this time, but there is a capital caravanserai on the opposite side of the ravine, of which on another occasion I availed myself. Visiting the town* in the evening, I found the place repaid me for putting up with its dirty narrow precincts, though it is hard to believe how people can exist without disease, and one understands the necessity of flat roofs and numerous balconies, seen from a distance. The northern end is only the width of one dwelling, but the opposite side is some fifty yards wide, the town thus accommodating itself to the shape of the isolated rock it is built on. There are about two-hundred and fifty houses in this confined space ranged along each side of a dirty narrow street leading through obscure passages, and rude archways, with the houses raised over them. The people, I found at both my visits, very civil, and they showed me into the only little mosque inside the walls, which is said to be very ancient; indeed the foundations of the town are twelve hundred years old or more, and very varied must be the history of this queer little place, which report says, has often withstood an invader. The whole population numbers about 1,200 souls, and the citizens declare their place to be impregnable, principally, I presume, from two or three rusty looking old guns mounted on the walls. They appear to be contented in their filth, and the

* Tavernier, who travelled from Shiraz to Yezdikhaust by the summer, or western, route, thus relates his experiences:—"Coming to Shiraz, I took horse there for Ispahan, where I arrived in nine days; the country over which you travel between these two cities is part plain and part mountain, part wild and part manured. Three days' journey from Shiraz you pass the mountain of Mayeen, a little city where there is nothing worthy observation. Two days' journey thence you enter upon the plains of Cuscuzar, (Kooshkizerd,) where the King of Persia keeps his race-horses. The next day I arrived at Yes-decas, where the best bread in Persia is made. This is a little city upon a rock, wherein there is a very fair inn, at the foot whereof runs a little river that glides into the valley wherein grows that excellent corn which is utter'd in bread from that city." This account proves that the place is quite unaltered since 1641-42. The Persian proverb says there are three good things in Iran: "The Wine of Shiraz; the Ladies of Yezd; and the Bread of Yezdikhaust."

Touching the cuisine to be met with at Yezdikhaust, Binning thus writes:—"The person in whose house I had lodged here, nearly nine months previously, sent me a repast which was very acceptable. The principal dish was a "Sheerdoon," or Persian Haggis, made of the stomach of a sheep, filled with meat chopped small, rice, sweetmeats, and spices; and sewn up and boiled. It is not unpalatable, though it is but a poor apology for the great chieftain of the pudding race of my native land."

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women are importunate in their requests for physic, take little care to conceal their charms, if they possess any. The usual collector of revenue made his appearance here during my visit, and the Kedkhodah declared he would not pay a Shahi (halfpenny) till the new Hakim, or Shahzadah (Governor) was in Shiraz, and had stated who was to receive it. About 1,500 to 1,800 tomans are nominally paid to Hajee Kowane. Yezdikhaust is whati n the language of the Midshipman's mess would be styled, "A full belly station," as there are cookshops where excellent kabaubs, koorish (cooked meat), and kala paz (cooked sheep's head) can be procured.

I think we all were sorry to leave Yezdikhaust and its neighbourhood so soon. The little bazaar in the town had its charms for Abdullah and Mundoo, who had never seen such a place before or rejoiced in such good bread or sausage rolls, as I might term the kabaubs in the cookshop. Jaffir, paid as he was for his mules per diem, had no objection either to linger as they fed themselves on "alaf," a term which in muleteers' language signifies very nice young wheat or barley that may be appropriated in the absence of the owner; or, when on the road, it is applied to good grass found often in plenty at this pleasant season of the year. We always compared notes on leaving our munzil, and the opinions of the party after all were not much in favour of Yezdikhaust; Jaffir complained that barley and boosa were very dear, while I am convinced his mules during our stay did not cost a single shahi; and my cook said he could not get sufficient firewood to cook with—a substantial need which is felt much in this dreary land, where trees are few and far between, and often none to be seen for many miles.

We crossed from the province of Fars into Irak, some eight miles from Yezdikhaust, at the caravanserai and village of Ameenabad. After leaving this, the road is good and level all the way. We had the usual shower to-day in the afternoon, in fact twenty-four hours rarely passes without rain between noon and 3 p.m. Thunder sometimes accompanied these squalls, with high wind from either N.E. or N.W.; the evenings, however, are usually very fine, and the air delightful. The moon was shining in unclouded brightness when we reached the neighbourhood of our resting place, Muxoodbeggee, six farsakhs from Yezdikhaust, or we should have come to grief amongst its ruined walls, pitfalls, and numerous watercourses. As it was, we lost our way, but, procuring a guide at a walled fort, shortly passed a bivovac of the Shah's troops, on their way to the capital, and after many words of gentle rebuke to our khatir bashee, we arrived at last in the chuppra-khaneh, close by the village which is situated in the midst of sweet-smelling fields of clover, which Jaffir allowed his mules to wander amongst, (by mistake of course), until their owners finding it out, the place resounded with Persian expletives.

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This place used to belong to the Shah's mother, but now no one could tell me exactly who had the gleaning of it. The villagers roundly declared they were oppressed to an extent exceeding belief, but the statement is scarcely borne out by the crops around and generally well-to-do look of all the villagers, who live inside the fort where there are some fifty or sixty dwellings. The Sirbaz who were passing through at my visit are responsible for much of the trouble and pillage the poor villagers are subjected to, and if report is to be believed, have from time to time almost ruined the place with lawless outrage and *soorsaut*, as it is called. These gentry were not likely to honour the place with a visit whilst we were there, and I slept without molestation in the dakhl, or entrance of the little fortified village, allowing the locust band to leave an hour or two before we loaded our mules.

The next stage was a short one of four farsakhs, but the travelling was pleasant, the way, for the most part, lying along the eastern extreme of the valley, and under a range of high hills running in a N.E. and S.E. direction. The climate here is much milder than Abadeh, and travelling in the daytime is getting too warm to be agreeable, while the road is rough and full of pits and ravines. Our day's journey closed near Komeishah, which is a town of a poverty-stricken appearance; the walls have bastions at intervals, and it boasts of seven gates. Once thriving and populous, it was overrun by the Afghans in Hoossein's reign, when Ispahan fell into their hands, and has never rallied from the almost total destruction it then underwent. Whether the Sirbaz had made a descent on the bazaar or not, I did not ascertain, but my followers' descriptions were not favourable for our commissariat. Outwardly in a wretched condition, there are still several manufactures carried on at Komeishah, and it may be in a more flourishing state than it looked. Jaffir here supplied himself with a pair of geeva, and for myself I procured a beautiful set of kashuk, or carved wooden spoons, which were so fragile, that they suffered much from travelling. For the common sort there is a great demand, but the more elegant articles, wrought in intricate design, and thin as paper, are made to order. Pear and boxwood are principally used for these spoons. The Hakim, or Governor of Komeishah, at the time of my visit, was a son of Koller Mirza, the Governor of Ispahan, and was only ten or twelve years of age.

Leaving *en route* for Mahyar at seven, we remarked for the first time the pigeon towers, so familiar afterwards at Ispahan, but in this place they only seemed to render the ruins still more hideous. There were a few gardens here with a shrine of a saint and a burial ground, and soon after leaving the caravanserai Mahyar came into view. The valley we were crossing was quite level, and the road good, and on our way we saw a great quantity of ooshak, and camels were feeding in numbers on the

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herbage, at this season to be found in plenty. As our stage was only a short five farsakhs, we reached Mahyar early in the day. The village is poor enough, and of the mud fort style, so common here, but the caravanserai has been one of the finest I have ever seen, and from its massive structure and excellent brickwork, has well withstood the blasts and wear and tear of nearly 300 years. Lying under a huge rock, it is sheltered from most winds, and has doors and a dalandar, (with an assistant), a double row of rooms and excellent stables of the usual cloister description. Here permit me to give a description of a night's experience in a far worse munzil. It was wintry weather, and the hail and rain descended in sheets, the water rose nearly to the cells in the court of the caravanserai. Whether the few habitable cells were occupied or not, I cannot remember, but for some reason I could only find shelter on a raised platform in the stables behind, only used in the last resort by surwans, charvadahs, or the tame lions and bears of looties. Such a night rarely happens to a traveller, or such contiguity to camels, mules, and yaboos. Misery makes us acquainted with strange companions, and I leave the reader to judge of my night's experience.

On leaving the caravanserai of Mahyar, I again remarked the shameful neglect of these splendid refuges in a barren land, where they alone afford shelter to storm-tossed wayfarers in winter, or sun-scorched pilgrims in the hot weather. Bereft of all the parti-coloured tiling that once adorned it, and with much of the stone of which it had been composed appropriated for gardens and other purposes, it is becoming as bad as those filthy wretched ruins we have lately had to repose in. My companions amused themselves here by arranging their toilets for the next day's entrance into Ispahan, but already the bloom had disappeared from their holiday vestments, and as for Jaffir and Alli, they had little to choose from. "Furdah, Ispahan, Inshallah!" (To-morrow, Ispahan, please God,) ejaculated Jaffir, and no one this time attempted to contradict him.

We loaded and were off early in the night, having full thirty miles yet to accomplish, and the moon, rising high over our heads, lighted us along the dreary plain we had to traverse, until about three in the morning. To all appearances our way was barred by rugged and gloomy precipices, which form the defile known as Kothul-i-Orcheenee, (or pass of the stairs). On first entering this, a stupendous rock overlooked the road, and on our right hand a space receded, where a whole army might be concealed from observation in coming from Mahyar. The ascent is very gradual, and the road passable, and by the faint moonlight this part appeared more wild and gloomy than it really is. Of course we had the robber panic here, but as dawn broke, we neared in safety a dilapidated tower situated in the steepest part of the defile. Descending round a mass of rock, the path

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became more narrow and rough, till it finished with the stone steps from which the place derives its name. We were still fully twelve miles from Ispahan, at a pretty little place called Ispanek, where there is a caravanserai. We overtook our friends, the military *en grande tenue* just striking their tents, and preparing to proceed; ragged and disreputable enough they appeared, and I heard afterwards a free fight by way of welcome occurred in the city between them and their brethren of the north. Those we saw had many Bushirees amongst them, who were personally recognised by Abdullah and his friend Mundoo. We had a kaleeon here around the usual fire of died herbage, and this gave them an opportunity for adorning the outward man. Mundoo put my revolver and belt round his waist, and grasped the firelock of Dasht-i-Arjun renown, but was so inflated with military ardour, that, forgetful of its being loaded, he fired a *feu de joie* into our midst, wounding the poor boy in the left arm and wrist. Alli bore it very bravely, and when I came to examine the wound I found it not so bad as I expected, but it was a real damper on one of the few pleasant days on this weary trudge. Jaffir behaved very well about it afterwards, for I anticipated a serious row; of course I had to pay a little "blood-money," and there it ended.

Going on towards Ispahan, the river Zienderood first showed itself, and several gardens and pigeon towers; but the city and principal part of Ispahan were still hidden by low undulating hills, barren for the most part, and in the neighbourhood the usual ugly expanse. Pursuing our way over these hills, we caught a glimpse of the far-famed mosques and part of the city, but a turn in the road again excluded them from view. I could no longer restrain my impatience, but, leaving my companions to follow at their own slow pace, galloped on, and, after getting occasional glimpses of the town, at length emerged from the hills, and the whole truly beautiful panorama—mosques, bridges, palaces, gardens, fields, and I am compelled to add, ruins—burst in one flood of bright and gorgeous colouring, brilliant in the unclouded morning sunshine, on my wearied but delighted vision. Few Oriental places can look better at a distance at this time of the year than Ispahan. The Zienderood, swollen by the melting snow in the mountains, can almost be called a river, and pursues its way past the seven really picturesque and unique bridges, like a thread of silver. Distance hides the hideous mass of ruins on the east and north-east side of the city, and the torn and half-destroyed kashee, or beautiful blue tiling, of the Masjidi Shah and other mosques and minarets. Fruit trees in full blossom, and the rose gardens also coming into bloom, with well-kept fields and melon grounds, and fine timber in places where it has not been wantonly destroyed, together with the innumerable pigeon towers and quaint summer houses diversi-

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fying the prospect everywhere, gives Ispahan quite the palm of any Persian city I have met with. The climate at this season is fine and healthy, owing to the town having a higher and less enclosed position than Shiraz, with a loftier elevation above the sea, by some 500 feet.* I put up in the Julfah quarter, lying on the south side of the river, where the Armenian population, since the time of Abbas the Great, have been suffered to remain unmolested, treated with tolerable forbearance, and enjoyed a certain amount of protection from the Shah-in-Shah

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THE SOCIAL STATUS OF SOLDIERS.

BY AN EX-NON COMMISSIONED OFFICER.

When I joined the army in 1845 a tradition then existed that at the entrances to Kensington Gardens the following notice appeared. "No servants in livery; dogs or soldiers admitted." Whether this was so, I am not in a position to say, as I never saw it, but I have no doubt that there was some foundation for the scandalous report. The letters which have lately appeared in the *Times* from a "Line Officer" and others has brought the subject of a soldier's social status rather prominently again before the public. I speak of it as again, for it is only a year or so since a sergeant wrote to the papers complaining that he was refused admission to one of the Music Halls in London through being in uniform, and a good deal of correspondence ensued at the time upon the subject, which however I do not mean further to refer to.

The more recent case where an officer in company with his brother, a private dragoon, was informed at a table-d'hôte, that those present (chiefly farmers) objected to a soldier sitting at the same table with them, is one which I think requires notice of some kind. To a man like myself that has soldiered in every town of importance in the three kingdoms; that has mixed with every class in society; with men of every shade of political opinion, or of religion, or of no religion at all, and yet who never, except once, by word or action received the slightest insult personally, or had to listen to remarks made against the uniform he wore, it seems strange such a circumstance as described by "a Line Officer" could have occurred. I therefore think that the company was either an exceptional one, or as in the case I have alluded to, the party offending was not the company but the landlord of the house, who having perhaps had a quarrel sometime or other with a soldier, and got the worst of it, vented his private spleen publicly on any military man he met.

* By observation I made the height of Ispahan above sea level, about 4000 feet, and the distance from Shiraz, by "dead reckoning," about 172 miles.

Another correspondent narrated how a butcher and his wife declined to occupy a pew at church with a soldier, although the soldier was a sergeant; but do such instances at all show that soldiers generally are looked down upon by civilians? I think not. People so ignorant or so foolish as to make spectacles of themselves are regarded by their neighbours with pity—if not with contempt; when they do not knew better, their neighbours pity them, when they should know better, a feeling of resentment at their bad taste and want of feeling springs up in the minds of those who are witnesses of such conduct. Not but that such exhibitions of ignorance or worse should be exposed when they occur. That does good in many ways, but it is in my opinion eminently unjust because one or two soldiers are insulted by civilians, that against the body of the people an accusation of ill-bred offensive behaviour should be made.

So far from a man losing caste by enlisting, five times in six he acquires social status by becoming a soldier. I met the other day two men on the Thames Embankment, who from the personal resemblance they had to each other, were evidently brothers. One was a private in the Coldstream Guards and the other a civilian, and no person looking at the two could think otherwise than that the soldier honoured the civilian by being in his company. The former walked with shoulders square and head erect, as if he owned the ground he trod upon, the latter slank along as if his presence in the street was a thing to be apologised for, by humble looks and ways. The fact was that the man himself was aware he did not "size" alongside of his soldier brother, and as a Yankee would express it, "he felt mean accordin." As a soldier of over twenty years, I can speak with some experience on this subject, and I contend that so far from a soldier, either by common consent or because he wears Her Majesty's uniform, having lost status in the eyes of civilians, he has gained it, and is continuing to gain it.

I am aware this has not always been so. At the beginning of the present century, when the jails and workhouses were drained to fill the ranks of our army, soldiers were not regarded with at all favourable eyes by civilians. Even after Waterloo, the country at large was too much disposed to look at the cost to be able to recognise, as it should have done, the deeds of those who had by their valour won so great a victory. Soldiers were at that time—I have heard—often taunted by clodhoppers who knew no better with, "Aw! say sodger, Aw! paid for thy jacket, thee knaws," and when a likely but racketty lad enlisted, his friends considered that he had now sunk to the lowest depths. The army was then regarded as the refuge for the destitute, but ever since the Crimean War, or I might say since the inauguration of the present Volunteer movement, that feeling has, among civilians, completely disappeared. There are of course soldiers and soldiers. In the ranks and out of it there are men who would "sponge" upon a beggar, but such characters are thoroughly

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despised by their comrades, who would not be seen in their company. I may remark here, that when a soldier is seen out by himself, and as he saunters along looks hard at every person he meets as if he wished to claim acquaintanceship, he is a man to be avoided by civilians. Fortunately such men are few in each regiment, and if they manage to impose upon people outside of barracks, they impose upon no one inside. There they are well known, and I am happy to be able to add, their conduct meets there with the reward it merits.

As I have mentioned having once experiened incivility from a civilian, and as it in one respect resembles the treatment a "Line Officer" and his brother received, I will relate the circumstance as it occured. On the 1st of January, 1858, I went on a month's furlough from Birmingham, and in consequence of the furlough not being signed until late in the afternoon I was unable to get away from barracks before seven o'clock in the evening. South Wales was my first destination, and on getting to the railway station I was sorry to learn I could book no farther that night (a Saturday I remember) than Leominster. It was "Hobson's choice," so I took a ticket for that town, having as a soldier, the privilege, of travelling second class with a third class ticket. The train was a fast one, and I reached Leominster about ten p.m., when I asked to be directed to an hotel where I could have a bed. This was done most courteously, in fact a porter came with me to the hotel, and having engaged a bed-room and left my carpet bag there, I came down and entered the "Commercial Room," giving at the same time an order to the waiter to bring me some refreshment, which he did. It was one of those cosy old fashioned inns, the larger rooms of which were so arranged by having one half boxed off, and the other part open, that a person could either enjoy strict privacy, or become one of the general company. The room was full of gentlemen, but being a stranger I walked quietly into a disengaged box, and was soon immersed in the columns of a newspaper. From this however I was speedily aroused by the waiter, who whispered in my ear, a message from the landlord, to the effect that I was, "not to sit where I was, but to go into the tap-room."

To this message, I made no reply, beyond telling the waiter to bring me my bag, and immediately made preparation, by putting on my cloak, &c., for leaving the house.

"What is the matter, soldier?" asked one of the gentlemen, and seeing the whole company was looking at me with enquiring eyes I replied.

"Well! the landlord does not think me respectable enough to stay here, and has sent word for me to go into the tap-room, and as I do not care to do that, I shall go somewhere else."

On hearing this, the gentlemen present declared they would not allow it, and sending for the landlord, who I suppose had heard from the waiter what part of the compass the wind was now blowing

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from, most solemnly asserted he had never given the waiter such an order. It was all a mistake he assured us, that he had too much respect for men who fought their country's battles to do anything so rude, &c.

I was now invited to join the others, in fact at the large end of the room we formed one party, and a most enjoyable night was spent. As I had to leave at four a.m. for Hereford, no one went to bed, and when the time came for me to start, the whole of the company escorted me down to the Railway Station and saw me off. Nor did their kindness end here, as several gave me their addresses to call upon them, should I ever be near their homes, and one learning I should be in Edinburgh about the middle of the month made me promise to visit him in Picardy Place, where I found always afterwards a most hearty welcome.

This is no solitary experience of mine, beyond being the only time I met with incivility, which I am proud to say was promptly and fully apologised for by the offending party. I have been among the roughest people in Birmingham, Leeds and Manchester, and amongst their opposites; yet, as remarked, I always met with the best of treatment, and for no other perceivable reason, than, that I was a soldier. Even in Ireland, where soldiers are not over popular, I never experienced anything but civility. I have soldiered among the Orangemen in the north, and with the Catholics in the south, and have had no reason to alter my opinion. I certainly had an idea when in the neighbourhood of the Galtee mountains, and in the wild parts of Tipperary, that most of the civility shown was blarney. This however was doubtless due to Paddy's fault, "of laying it on too thick." A soldier to swallow all an Irishman, or an Irishwoman either, chooses to tell him about his "foine" corps, or his country must either be very vain, or very foolish. In fact humbug is an Irishman's birthright, and he follows it up so constantly and so zealously that in the long run he humbugs himself. If he did not do so, he could never believe, or pretend to believe that his country is the most productive, the most healthy, and his countrymen the most simple and generous people in existence. Paddy I believe to be too shrewd a fellow not to know, that the Emerald Isle produces neither coal nor iron, far less gold and diamonds, and that a country where it is always raining, may just be over productive—while his generosity matches he knows with his simplicity, for he is awfully wide-awake and careful.

That there exists in the civilian mind any sense of superiority over a military man, is, as I have tried to explain, a wrong idea, and the sooner it is allowed to explode the better for both parties. There are civilian fanatics who may regard a soldier from the same point of view Dr. Johnson did, namely "a hired assassin," but I believe that class of people are becoming fewer every day. The fair sex, no bad judges of who may or who may not be placed upon the footing of acquaintanceship, have long ago declared in favour of the

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military, and surely their opinion should do a great deal towards clearing away the fog which apparently has surrounded this subject in certain quarters.

Other questions have been introduced into the discussion; such as soldiers being put by themselves when they go to church, and that officers appearing in mufti, instead of regimentals when off duty, leads civilians to imagine they are ashamed of their uniforms. With respect to the first, I cannot see how soldiers could attend Divine service, and show any degree of respect for the place of worship if they were permitted to spread themselves all over the place, while it would be much more difficult to "fall them in" and march them away at the conclusion of the service, than by the more sensible plan. As to officers being ashamed to wear regimentals, that is complete nonsense. The reason they do not wear them is a simple one, Regimentals are not only more uncomfortable to wear than mufti, but—and this is the chief reason—they are far more expensive, and consequently require to be taken care of, especially by poor men.

The Status of a soldier may be summed up, that generally his coat allows him to mix in far better society than he would ever have done had he remained a civilian. To do this a man need not have much education, so long as he knows how to behave himself. I knew an old soldier who belonged to the Dragoons and who could neither read nor write, and yet he always managed wherever he was quartered to mix in the best of company. His plan was an original one, and as he has left the Service many years I may tell it. If a newspaper was to be purchased or procured, he would get one, and then for a very small consideration get a comrade to read to him. He thus kept himself posted up in all the topics of the day, and having an excellent memory and the tact not to venture on strange ground, he passed for an educated intelligent man. As no man need ever be ashamed of his country, if his country has no cause to be ashamed of him, so no soldier need ever be ashamed of the jacket he wears.

EUROPE AT THE CLOSE OF 1878.

Three positions which can hardly be gainsaid, are conspicuous amongst the Nations of Europe as the year 1878 draws to its close. They are as follows,

1st.—That the custom of universal Military service, now in use among all the Continental States, tends more and more to the settlement of all serious political disputes by violence, that is by Civil War.

2nd.—That the Church in nearly every Nation is endeavouring to regain that control over the minds and actions of mankind which it possessed in the earlier Middle Ages.

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3rd.—That the liberation of the half-civilised populations of the South-East from the only control which has hitherto kept them in peace one among the other, will scarce restrain them from confusion and anarchy, and is likely to involve their neighbours, on every side, in endless and dangerous disputes.

On each of these theses I propose to offer a few remarks, for together they present the most formidable Panorama that Europe has beheld since the days of Alaric and Attila.

As the universal arming of Italy at the time of the War of the Allies changed the domestic political disputes of the Roman Republic from street riots and broken heads into the fierce and bloody encounter of armed legions, so will compulsory military service furnish every faction in every country with trained and disciplined men ready to carry all questions which stir their passions by open violence. The time may have been—and was—when the knowledge, that each party in a State was armed and prepared, might have given them that respect for each other which leads to compromise. Such was the time when Mirabeau counselled Louis XVI. to go down to the Army and make preparations for a Civil War. But that time is past. Factions are too strong and have too mighty desires on which their hearts are set to refuse even deadly weapons with which to overthrow their adversaries—and such this universal service gives them.

It is true that the Government for the time being commands the embodied force and possesses the arsenals of the State; but let us once more see such desertion as we witnessed in '30 and '48, and the scandalous scenes which took place in Berlin and Vienna in the the latter year, when mobs burst open the public magazines with beams of timber, and the insurgent forces will not long want either for troops or cartridges. It is useless nonsense to repeat that which the orators of the Peace Society, and the frothy poets of International Congresses are so fond of re-iterating; "that mankind is now too enlightened and philanthropic to proceed to any such extremities." Let them consider the proposals and desires of the two most powerful parties in France, and say honestly how they think they are to be reconciled. Why, it is but lately that Gambetta, the leading man of the governing faction, declared that the Republican Assembly would force all the candidates for the priesthood to serve, like other classes, in the ranks of the Army. Does any man suppose that the Clerical Party would submit to such a law if they could find men and muskets to oppose it? Unless indeed they have neither pluck nor purpose!

This then is likely to be one of the instances which universal service will give us when in action, and on which we shall have still more to say when we come to our second position. But it is useless to hope for an end to this curse to the world before it has ran its career of evil. Germany invented and established it, and now France, Italy, Austria, and Russia have taken it up, and none can

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lay it down, if he would not be trampled to pieces by his neighbours. Moreover, there are other reasons besides that why certain of the nations should cling to it now they have got it. There is Democratic envy. The French *ouvrier* likes it because it spites the rich. The Russian peasant because he delights to see his former Lord turned into a private soldier.

Lackadaisical sentimentalists like Victor Hugo look for the time when nations will be universally armed, but love each other as brothers. But that time is not very near; indeed mankind in general must be much further advanced in Christianity and morality before it does come; for the age is soft rather than moral or religious. Though it must still be owned, thanks to printing and public opinion, that in certain particulars, such as a hatred and determination to resist tyranny, in zeal for justice, and in inclination to assist those oppressed, whether by the higher classes or by the mob, we stand higher than did our forefathers.

Still our prevalent ill qualities exist without much sign of their diminution; and while envy, hatred, malice, covetousness and the desire for our neighbour's possessions remain, we shall have foreign wars and domestic factions. Indeed the former is the safest and most legitimate way of blowing off the steam generated by these passions. Whilst, to the latter, bitter enough at the present epoch in some nations, compulsory military service will afford the means of disputing as well with the rifle and bayonet as with the tongue and printing press. Look upon France. It has three (or four) political parties, who have each in their turn possessed the sovereignty; the Legitimists, the Orleanists, the Imperialists and the Republicans. It has two social parties. Those who possess and those who desire; the Capitalists and the Communists. Also two politico-social parties, the Church and the Atheists. A goodly array of factions to supply with trained soldiers! All these hate one another with a bitter hatred, and the first serious outburst of their dislike will bring them into the open field

Germany is but little better off. Without doubt, the prevailing Socialism which Prince Bismark is striving to put down, in great measure owns its existence to the hatred which the working classes bear to that system of which their country was the first founder. But where lies the remedy? The country has got the system, and other countries have also got it; and how do they propose to get rid of it? Nevertheless, if they do *not*, as time rolls on other classes will join the workmen; and at last we shall see two powers opposed to one another in the field, on one side the Government and the Army for the time being, commanded by the Caste of officers; on the other, the Reserves commanded by the officers of the Landwehr. Add to this picture the action of the Roman Church in the Empire, and the prospect is complete. Italy and Russia are somewhat differently situated from Germany. They, too, have borrowed the universal system; but the danger to the first arises, perhaps, not

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so much from the present strife of domestic factions as from a silly sentimentalism which will embroil her with foreign nations, and to the fact that compulsory service will instil military ideas, and the knowledge of the use of arms into the banditti of Sicily and Naples.

Russia's danger proceeds less from the rank and file of the universal and compulsory Army—for as we have said they will rather be pleased than otherwise to see their former haughty masters shouldering the musket in the frozen Steppes of Khiva—than from the educated classes, who must hate the new system with a bitter and daily increasing hatred, and from the officers whose detestation of the rule under which they serve, will, doubtless, in the new state of affairs find a fulcrum with which to overset the Hierarchy before whom they have had so long to crouch.

Of Austria and of the change which the adoption of the Prussian mode has made as yet on her Forces, we are not so well informed; but this we do know, that her army is composed of three distinct and unfriendly Nationalities. Whilst they were a veteran army of the old stamp, they could be held together by martial pride and military honour, and be such an army as in fact they always have been. But now that every Sclave, Magyar and German is to become a soldier, why, they will not be one army, but three armies; one of which will certainly look with a friendly eye upon the foreign enemy of their, (so designated), common country.

England alone has declined universal and compulsory military service, and has trusted and does trust on the voluntary zeal and efforts of her children. For this she is in some measure despised by pedants domestic, as well as foreign. It has been cast in her teeth, "what will she do, with her small regular army and her citizen soldiers when the vast armies of the continent are cast upon her shores?"

Without bluster—let them come and try it!

But in one thing she, as well as the rest, is going astray, and that in a simply military point of view. They are all ignoring the supreme value of veteran and professional soldiers. Hannibal and Cæsar would not have done so. In war it will be shortly seen that the change has worked in a way not expected. The lads, of whom the armies are now composed, will be at a disadvantage when acting against warlike and semi-civilised races, accustomed from their youth to arms. Austria has found this in Bosnia and Albania. Let us hope that the men we are about to send against the Afghans are some of the old stamp; youths of eighteen will be hardly set in the Khyber and the Khoord Caubul.

So much, then, for our first position, that universal military service will not only tend to breed political quarrels, but will lead to the settlement of them with artillery rather than argument, and with rifles rather than reasons.* Much more might be said of the

* Herr Sonneman in the German Reichstag has already told Prince Bismarck, without circumlocution, that the Socialists will, when the time comes, defend their tenets at the mouth of the rifle.

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evils to be brought upon Europe by the burthens which will now be laid upon her; to be increased ten-fold when that long and serious war comes, which the whole aspect of the times shows cannot be very far distant.

Where will be the traders, and the medicos, and the attorneys when a twenty years' war comes upon their country? Cynics might say that the world will be well rid of some of them. Still it will be hard that they should be thus unceremoniously dismissed before their time, with an ounce of lead in their heads or bodies. Had they gone willingly, it would have been another matter.

We now come to our second position, and every thing we see, or hear, or read of, confirms the truth of it. Since the close of the first quarter of the present century unceasing efforts have been made to exalt the dominion of the Roman Curia (the governing body in the church) at the expense of the National churches in Catholic countries, and over Catholic bodies in Protestant ones.

The advance of this spirit of Ultramontanism, as it is called, which is the political rather than the religious action of the church —though it makes plentiful use of religious phraseology—is seen in numerous instances. In the whole course of the reign of Pius IX., in the utter extinction of the Gallican Church and its liberties, in the wresting of the choice of bishops in Ireland from the Irish clerical body and vesting it in the Pope; in the forcing the dogma of Papal Infallibility down the throats of all dissentients, and thus placing the whole body of Roman Catholics under the rule of a spiritual autocrat, an autocrat who prescribes faith and morals; what men shall think and what they shall do. Who, if he does not thereby also obtain authority over their civil and political lives, the word authority has not the meaning it used to have.

The control aimed at is clearly that enjoyed in the Middle Ages; but with this difference, that then it depended upon the ignorance of the superstitious and half-civilised laity. Now it is being founded upon the weakness and timidity of a soft and luxurious era, one delighting in theatrical sensation more than in manly sense. The Ultramontane rulers understand their times, and know how and where to push their pretensions and obtain recruits. The female sex; the timid and credulous amongst the males; those who do not dare to think for themselves; and even, it must be allowed, those of the sincere and earnest, who dread the aspect of the opposing host, are largely in their favour. For the ranks of their enemies contain sundry sinister bands whose action is at all times likely to alarm and distress the honest and well-meaning. Medical epicureans, infidel fanatics, dogmatic atheists, and scampish revolutionists abound among them—many of them forming the only class in this age visibly imbued with the spirit of the Inquisition. People, who if you persist in the belief of yourselves and your fathers, and will not receive their worship of matter and motion, their ape-descent, or their spirit-rapping, conceive you to

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be fools, and view you with a dislike that smells of fire and faggot.

These are the men whose presence in the ranks of progress, or of 19th century intelligence, lends to the reactionaries a great part of the strength they possess; making the present contest one between the powers of credulity and incredulity, or may be, overmuch credulity. It was to have been hoped, nay, it may still be hoped, that a third banner might be raised between these contending hordes, that of common sense and right reason. But there are ominous sounds on the gale, tending to shake our confidence. But let us hope for the best; doubtless the world will have to go through a great deal, but the return of liberty, true religion, and sense, may at last be looked for.

In the strife that is now going on, the church is in some countries the assailant, in others the assailed.

In the latter category she appears in France, where, without doubt, the prevailing party will press her to the very verge of destruction. The speech of M. Gambetta, to which we have above alluded, discovers an intended blow which must be parried, or a mortal wound will surely follow. What must be done to meet such an attack? The church is, apparently, not yet ready to resist by force of arms, although she has been parading her forces at Lourdes and elsewhere for this long time past. Patience and a skilful manipulation of the means put into her hands by universal military service, together with a constant outcry against the tyranny to which she is subjected, is her most likely course. There is another, to which we shall allude presently.

Such, then, at present, is the state of the struggle in France, as regards the rivalry of the Church and the Civil power.

In other countries, such as Germany, Italy, Belgium and England, the Papal power has been aggressive for many years past. Here, boldly and audaciously, there, with prudent and cautious policy, as suits the temper and feelings of the populations amongst whom it is acting. Germany has replied to the assault, which is in the first place directed to the undermining of the New German Empire, by fierce and determined action; by exiling bishops and stopping the salaries of priests. Italy by seizing the States of the Church and confiscating the revenues of the religious orders. In Belgium, where alone the Church has acquired at times a complete ascendancy, it is resisted, and with bitter hostility by the burghers of the large towns. While England, trusting to the weapons of reason, has hitherto taken but little concern in the stealthy and quiet advances of the Ultramontanes, though the appearance of treason amongst those to whom she ought to be able especially to confide those weapons, is likely presently to call her attention more forcibly to the subject.

There is another road the Church might take, by which she might hope to humble her adversaries, the civil governments. But to

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take that requires greater boldness than was to be expected from Pius IX., or is to be looked for in Leo XIII. Indeed, it would require a Hildebrand or an Innocent to advance upon it. It is that which leads to an alliance with the Communists of the day. It is very possible, nay, we have seen instances in which bold and ambitious ecclesiastics have sounded the class in question, and, doubtless, it has been oftener done than society is aware of.

But it will be a bold and hazardous measure, and the difficulties in the way of its realisation in many countries would be great. In France, where, strange to say, the greatest power of the church resides, (I mean political, secular power) the peasantry, its great support, would by no means relish any alliance between their clergy and those of the cities who desire a fair and equal division of other men's goods. At the same time the *ouvriers* regard not only the clerical party, but religion itself, with a hatred which will require very advantageous terms indeed to make them fellow-labourers with these very men.

Doubtless an Innocent might work out the problem.

The Socialist alliance would not be attended with the same difficulties in Germany. There the working-classes, brought up as Protestants in the northern division, are indifferent, rather than bitterly hostile, to religious systems. While their dislike to their own government rule is more pronounced than that of the French Radicals can be supposed to be, under their chosen Republic. In many parts of South Germany the country people, given to superstitious observances, are as docile tools as the priesthood could desire. But after all, what ultimate gain can the Papacy look for? They may indeed obtain an army, but they will have to fight; for the civil power (Cæsar in the cant of the day) can always muster a sufficient force amongst those who will not patiently see a general distribution of their goods. Blows will then decide the question, and the victorious army will remain the master of the situation. If the State wins the day, their army may constitute themselves the State, as in the days of the Romans, though, perhaps, with less moderation. If the priests are victorious, they will be the subjects of their own officers.

Thus the contest is not likely to tend much to the advantage of either party; but can we, therefore, calculate upon their possessing sufficient sense to avoid it? Looking at the circumstances, I fear not.

In stating the case as above, in this, our second position, we have not been considering the working of God's Truth, as shown in the religious feelings implanted in the heart of man; for that truth is eternal, and those feelings will in the end be triumphant over all adversaries. But we have been dealing with a Politico-Ecclesiastical System which is not eternal, neither are its doings infallible, nor always wise. Indeed, the craft of many of its leading spirits is too crafty, even to the extent of taking in themselves.

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Therefore it is that the success of their efforts is at best problematical.

Having disposed thus far of the problems of the future, we now come to the third position, which concerns the present.

Little doubt can exist as to the truth of this position. Look around and observe the gradual course of events. We have Austria slowly and with difficulty acquiring possession of two provinces at the cost of much blood and treasure; and at the cost of making bitter and revengeful enemies of those who alone in those countries were disposed to be friendly. She has quarrelled irreconcileably with the enemies of Russia and the owners of the soil. What does she mean to do next? Make, I suppose, a radical revolution, and divide the land amongst an insurgent peasantry! And what does she hope to gain by it? Two provinces inhabited by hostile Sclavonians, and the canting pretext of having added to the domain of Christendom! She will speedily find that she has not added much to her own domain.

She may, indeed, for a time keep the people down by the presence of an overwhelming force; but what will her affectionate friends Servia and Montenegro say to its presence? Or what will her beneficent ally, the Czar, think of the constant pressure placed upon his brethren? Putting aside the sympathy of the Mohammedan Arnauts for their down-trodden co-religionists—it being presumed that Austria does not intend to drive them out of the land, as well as to confiscate their estates. There never was such a hobble as that into which a power, situated like Austria, has contrived to get itself. With already two rival parliaments, it really appears as if it desired so to increase the Sclavonic element under its rule, as to be obliged to grant them a third, and decidedly *hostile* Assembly!

A worthy Irish Member recommends England to assimilate her political system to that of Austro-Hungary, by giving to Ireland a separate Legislature. One would think that one example of the kind was sufficient to show mankind the beauties of confusion! Somebody has sagaciously remarked that Austria has driven a wedge into Pansclavism: it will rather turn out that she has introduced the thin edge of the said implement between her own ribs. If the issue be not the separation and final end of the Dual Monarchy, the Russians will have made their calculations with less than their usual acumen. But let not Italy think that she can take advantage of Austria's mistakes; or Greece imagine that she can follow her example and likewise appropriate the goods and chattels of her neighbour. They will but increase the catastrophe to their own discomfiture. Meanwhile when, it may be asked, does Russia intend to withdraw from the south side of the Balkan and allow this European Commission to go about its work neither controlled nor overawed? The Commissioners have been, surely, a sufficient time in making a commencement. How they will deal with the

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mingled populations around them will be a problem, the like of which has not been solved in our time.

When, again, is the Prince of Bulgaria proper to be chosen? What are to be his powers and prerogatives, and to whom is he to look? to the Sultan, to Europe at large, or to Russia? Not, certainly, to the first. Nor will he get either counsel or strength from united, or disunited Europe. Russia will be his prop and stay, whether she retires over the Danube at the end of nine months or whether she remains. Should she conclude to set at naught the Berlin Treaty, who is likely to vindicate it? not Germany, certainly, as long as the present Emperor lives and Bismarck's present temper holds. Not Austria; she has quite enough on her hands as it is. Not Italy, nor France either. There remains but England, and it will be enough for us to save Constantinople from a *coup-de-main;* and so to lend our aid as to lay the foundation of a vigorous polity in Asia Minor. This, in the present state of the Continent, is as much as we can do, especially as Russia has contrived to embroil us with the ruler of the Afghans. But as much as this we can, and must do.

Time goes on; the turmoil increases. Croatia demands a separate Sclavonic State in the Austrian Empire, to which separate autonomy the newly acquired, or to be acquired, provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina are to be annexed. Bulgaria insinuates that Servia and Roumania should be added to the Bulgarian Principality or Kingdom. Russia, instead of retiring north of the Balkans, returns to the near neighbourhood of Constantinople! What do those Liberals, who have the sense, spirit, or feelings of men, think of their handiwork? For they might have prevented all this; or if not prevented it, postponed and, it may be, given the course of events a new and safer direction. For the present direction is, decidedly, to the destruction of the Austrian Empire as that of Turkey has been destroyed. Mr. Gladstone said in Parliament that he could perceive and, when the fitting time came, justify the fate of Austria. He would, it may be supposed, when placed upon the Tripod, like the Priestess of Delphi, burst into a paroxysm of sentimental prophecy. His outburst might encourage and incite Garibaldi; but how would his country, or Europe, or mankind be any the better for the Vaticination? The world would merely suppose that he *Moscovized.*

But whether the oracular utterance is given, or withheld, that, which he and the Liberals may, (without illiberality on our part,) be supposed to wish, is (unless by a direct interposition of Providence) on the high road to accomplishment. Austria will be split into three separate kingdoms, dominated, perhaps, at first by a military despotism, presided over by the Peace-maker of Solferino, Francis Joseph. Hungary will be crushed, and the Germans of the Archduchies reduced to a powerless minority.

Is that what Prince Bismarck is looking for?

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Quos Deus vult perdere, prius dementat. And truly we may well ask, "What are the thoughts, and wishes, and intentions of the German Government?" I say nothing of the Emperor, for he is enthralled by family affection and avuncular love; but what are German statesmen thinking of? Are they so frightened at the Socialist spectre that they would prefer the sight of the Russians in Bohemia? Or do they hope to unite the Austro-German Duchies to the Empire? They would have some difficulty in getting from Berlin to Vienna if the Russians were at Prague. Nor must we forget that a very strong reinforcement would be acquired for the Ultramontanes in the new acquisition.

Again we must sadly ask, "Are 19th century statesmen bereft of all political sagacity, or has the revolutionary cyclone which shows upon the horizon, deprived them of their senses?" They have fair reason for fright, for the danger approaches, and will be upon them in a short time relatively to the years of a nation. Nevertheless, they will have time to consider whether it will be better to make terms with their own countrymen, even if their demands should be somewhat unreasonable, or to throw themselves into the arms of foreign tyrants. And that, if I mistake not, is likely to be the alternative offered for the acceptance of Modern Europe.

Thus have we made a tour through the great Powers of the Continent, and we find everywhere timidity, impolicy, and indecision. The Treaty they have made and ushered into the world with a flourish of trumpets, that is likely to sound the funeral march of some of them, is, to all appearance, to be broken nearly as soon as made. Russia, thinking that she has struck a clever stroke in involving England in the Afghan quarrel, (and no one will deny its craftiness,) most certainly does not intend to be turned aside, at this moment above all others, from her secular policy. Her ambition, her supposed territorial interests, the very safety of her Government, bid her strike now that the iron is hot. She will never have such another opportunity. Never again will there be a conjunction of three such Emperors as now rule the East. The unctuousness of the one, the fatuous fondness of another, and the timid weakness of a third, form a dish such as will hardly be set before assembled Europe a second time in our day. Therefore Russia is, as it were, bound to take advantage of the confusion she has been able to produce. She apparently has her rivals of Central Europe at her feet. If she does not trample them in the mire, we may thank a good Providence, which does not intend the world to be again reduced to the state of the Roman Empire of old, under the tyranny of a military oligarchy, not half so honest and not half so manly.

Be it our part to resist this oligarchy; it is our duty, as it is our interest; and I believe we shall see and act up to it. In fact, this quarrel, which Russia has roused up for us in the far East,

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will force our duty upon us; and when our hand is well in, Providence will take the direction of affairs and oblige us to perform the part for which we are destined in spite of either sluggish unwillingness in the general, or factious treachery in the individual.

It is too early to speculate on the course of the Afghan embroglio; but this much is apparent, that Russia hopes to distract our attention from affairs in Europe, by feeding this contest by moral, or as, the Russian Papers now have it, by physical assistance to our enemy. In the usual crafty, canting manner of the country, they proclaim that should England confine herself to seeking redress and apology for an insult, Russia will remain a quiet, though not unconcerned spectator; but that, should anything further be demanded of the Ameer, she will not allow the free tribes of Afghanistan to be domineered over, but the long and short of it is, she will resist the extension of English influence by force of arms. Here then we have another step, and a pretty long one, in the course of Eastern affairs. Russia is come down on the confines of India, and will not allow the Rulers of India to settle with their next door neighbours without her concurrence! So much for the *Masterly Inactivity* of these latter years, and the wisdom of those who saw in the Russian campaigns in Upper Asia nothing but disinterested endeavours to plant order, happiness and civilisation in a large and benighted region of the globe! It was always to be supposed that a hope of substantial reward lurked behind these benevolent and Christian efforts.

These utterances of the *Golos* and its sister journals will give the cue to the Muscovite faction in England; and we shall next hear burning denunciations of the wickedness of England in thus defending her honour and territorial rights; and equally fervent praises of Russia for not permitting a brave and free people to be trampled under foot, and so on to the end of the chapter, which these men hope to see finished at the mouth of the Ganges.

All this will doubtless add greatly to the difficulties of Government; but let us hope that we and they are equal to them. And above all let not our attention be drawn away from the grand point of issue, and when we hear of great and costly efforts to be made at Candahar and Caubul; let us constantly repeat "Do not forget Gallipoli, Gallipoli, Gallipoli!" There is the pivot upon which the world's action for the present turns.

And therefore it was with satisfaction that patriots and men of political insight heard the utterances of the Prime Minister on a late occasion at the Mansion House; Lord Beaconsfield there declared that England would insist upon the literal carrying out of the Berlin Treaty. Furthermore that the present Afghan dispute should lead, not only to more satisfactory relations between the Powers, but to such a military arrangement of the frontier as shall secure India for the future from every danger from North Western Inva-

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sion. This is pleasing intelligence; and another remark of the Minister is still more calculated to gratify Military Students of History, namely when he stated that Cyprus was selected from among the Islands of the Levant mainly from its superiority as a Place of Arms. This shows that the Government apprehends the how and the where the war of the future should be carried on. These views and the determination of our Government without doubt have had their due effect upon those of the Continental States who are more immediately interested in the present state of affairs; for the Czar has since officially notified his intention fully to observe the terms of the Treaty and to cause them to be duly respected by his officers. The Emperor of Austria has also plucked up resolution to declare that he, like England, will insist upon the due observation of every Article. So far so good; and it is now most probable that next May will see the execution of the most important conditions.

But the European Crisis is only postponed, not avoided, and when Lord Beaconsfield avowed his belief that all the Signatory Powers would do their duty to the cause of European freedom and independance, he was using the terms of Diplomatic courtesy, which may be necessary but are sometimes inconvenient. In his inner thought he knows that the situation is not so rose-coloured. Merely to step across the Straits of Dover we find France declaring, by the mouth of her Government, that under no circumstances will she depart from absolute and even indifferent neutrality. That not a drop of French blood nor a franc of French money shall be expended in a general cause, however righteous. There is but one righteous cause in French eyes, the recovery of Metz and Strasbourg and the humiliation of the German nation.

Bismarck is aware of this, and therefore he leans to a Russian alliance, as one means of avoiding a future Franco-Russian Confederacy. But these feelings strike off two factors from the boasted European Unity of purpose. Leaving only England and Austria, (for neither the power nor policy of Italy is much to be reckoned on) to uphold the bulwarks against the inundation of Pansclavism and military tyranny. Let us then trust in a good Providence that the people of England may long retain that political vigour and manly sense which has hitherto made them stand up boldly for right and justice; never doubting that they shall find allies and assistants in the best and most patriotic of the States of Europe.

A FRENCH INFANTRY OFFICER'S ACCOUNT OF WATERLOO.

The writer of the following narration was a young Swiss officer who passing through the military school of Saint Cyr joined his Regiment at Magdeburg in April 1813 as a sub-lieutenant. He

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served with the 154th French Regiment of the Line at the battles of Leipsic and Hanau, and after undergoing terrible sufferings and hardships on the retreat from Leipsic, his Regiment, which was reduced to a mere skeleton, returned to France, and was quartered at Condé.

The 154th at the peace was amalgamated with the débris of the 45th and of other corps, as the 42nd of the Line. He was on the point of quitting the French service when Napoleon to the intense joy of the French Army returned from Elba. His regiment was then renumbered as the 45th of the Line, under which designation it went through the brief but disastrous Waterloo campaign, the account of which we now leave our author to describe in nearly his own words.

Amidst the tears and good wishes of our friends at Condé, where the 45th stood high in the estimation of the inhabitants, we joyfully set off on the 12th of June for Valenciennes where our Eagles were to be restored to us, and where the first corps under Count d'Erlon was assembled. I had doutless seen larger bodies of troops under arms together, but never had I seen a more brilliant and splendid sight than that of these sixteen regiments of Infantry when in superb order and manœuvring with admirable precision they, with enthusiasm and deep emotion, once more received the Eagles under which they had so often fought and conquered. The plain on which we stood was completely covered by masses of men, for the First Corps, besides the Infantry, comprised about three thousand Cavalry and Artillery.

When the Eagles were delivered into our hands, the air was rent with the shouts of twenty thousand men swearing to conquer or to die. Alas poor fellows! Well did they keep their oath, and when six days later I saw the wrecks of this corps what a change had come over it, and who would then have foreseen such a catastrophe! But enough of this, let me proceed to the recital of this short but terrible campaign, which in four days decided the fate of an empire, perhaps that of the world. Never did army set forth more confident of success. What did we care about the numerical superiority of the enemy? for in our ranks we mustered not only soldiers grown grey in victory, but others who having had the misfortune of having been prisoners of war for years, felt the more embittered against the enemy, and had a thousand wrongs and outrages to revenge. The men's faces tanned by the suns of Spain, or by the frosts of Russia flushed at the thoughts of battle.

They wished it is true for peace, but it must be a glorious peace, and one that would restore to France her natural boundary of the Rhine. The wishes of the Belgians, the vast number of desertions from the enemy's ranks, and the presumed lack of cordiality among the different nations and languages which composed their armies, all were calculated to foster our patriotic delusions.

A fatal error on our part! but a very natural one, and one which

was only revealed to us on the 18th, when the conduct of the Belgians proved how greatly Napoleon had been misinformed. It was with these feelings that we marched on the 14th of June to Beaumont where the whole French Army was to assemble. We reached our ground at about seven o'clock in the evening. It was our first bivouac, but as we could not sleep on account of the torrents of rain, we sat up and discussed the operations of the morrow. Every one of us laid down the law without knowing much on the subject, so that bivouacs transformed themselves into councils of war, not however forgetting to heap fuel on the camp fires to boil our kettles. Under a gloomy and rainy sky we crossed the Belgian frontier before daybreak on the 15th. The ground, saturated by the previous rains, sank under our feet, causing no slight fatigue to our men, for in an advance towards the enemy the causeway is reserved for the Artillery and Cavalry, Infantry having to plod along across the fields.

We fell in with the first troops of the enemy in the afternoon. They tried to resist, but after killing a few hundreds of them we drove the rest back on Marchiennes and Charleroi where they rallied, and being reinforced attempted to hold their ground so as to defend the passage of the Sambre and there await the main body of their army. Our second corps which had preceded us did not give them time to do so, but after firing a few round shots the second corps carried the bridge with the bayonet and established itself on the other bank of the Sambre. We were not engaged that day as D'Erlon's corps followed Reille's, and it was in the traces of the latter that I, after a lapse of eighteen months, once more saw the ground strewed with dead and wounded; this sight evidently heralding the repetition of so many bloody scenes made a deep impression on my mind, making my heart beat fast. Why should I not confess it? for it did not prevent me subsequently doing my duty. The day was drawing to an end, we had been under arms since two o'clock in the morning without food and we had marched eight leagues in stifling heat, when we were at length ordered to bivouac on the Brussels road and in front of Charleroi. This night was a far pleasanter one than the last. There was no rain, the men went out foraging for wood and straw, and as it often happens that when looking for wood in the attics they found wine in the cellars. This evil is unavoidable; foraging parties cannot help entering houses, in fact it is fortunate when nothing more serious occurs. One of our men thus employed, and who had served in Spain, went straight to the priest's house, and well knowing the habits of the black-coated gentry betook himself at once to the cellar, whence he fished out several bottles of excellent wine which we drank to the health of the good priest.

The forenoon of the 16th of June was spent in deploying and in an advance of the army towards the plains of Fleurus where Blucher and his Prussians were awaiting our arrival; but as on our other

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flank on the Brussels road the Anglo-Hanoverians, Dutch and Belgians were concentrating, D'Erlon's and other corps were left to confront them. At about three in the afternoon two battles simultaneously began. The most important of the two that of Ligny, fought by Napoleon against the Prussians, took place at about a league (two and a half English miles) on our right. The other action under Marshal Ney, at about the same distance, was with the English at a place called Quatre Bras. You will naturally ask in which did *we* participate. Strangely enough in neither. Owing to misapprehensions between our generals, or to contradictory or badly understood orders, Erlon's troops were positively useless, and did nothing but march and countermarch between the two fields of battle, near as both were to us!

Between five and six o'clock we found ourselves on the flank of the Prussian army and in sight of St. Amand, where the fight was still raging. It was said at the time that had we been allowed to attack, the complete overthrow of the Prussians would have been the result. Instead of this comes another counterorder, and we are despatched in the direction of Quatre Bras where Ney, in great danger, was loudly calling for us, and there we arrived when all was over. The results of that day's fighting were indecisive, so Ney's army bivouacked in front of Quatre Bras. Thus at the close of a day which had cost each side three thousand men, we had nothing else to do but quietly to go to bed like useless fellows without our having even fired a single shot, and thoroughly ashamed were we of our forced inaction. But though we had not pulled a trigger, we saw a sight not easily forgotten in the battle fields and their vicinity.

On our advance towards St. Amand near Fleurus and Ligny, the roads were crowded with carts bearing off an immense number of wounded, not to speak of those still stretched on the plain. A horrible sight! and I assure you it required as much courage to advance on the enemy through the dying and the dead, as it does to storm a battery. They were by no means the first I had seen during my career, but I think it impossible for any man to traverse without feelings of the deepest emotion these crowds of men but a few hours ago so brisk and lively, and now dabbled in blood or mutilated in every possible manner, lying in heaps with the agonies of death discernible on their features.

Strange to say these men mostly seemed less affected by their own state than we were, for still pre-occupied with the success of our Army they forgot their own sufferings in their anxiety to encourage us. Some of them would uplift their pale faces and call out to us from their carts. "Go on, comrades, all is going on well." "A little more courage, and the enemy is routed." I saw some expend their latest breath in shouting Vive l'Empereur. What men! whom neither death or suffering could subdue, and who could retain their unconquerable firmness to the last! But let us

dwell no longer on these melancholy scenes too soon alas to be repeated on a larger stage.

Our bivouac this night was as good as the preceding one, and far more pleasant. The 45th found itself for the night in front of a village, and our men fearing that their officers might run short of provisions vied with one another in bringing in sheep, pigs, calves and even bullocks, till our bivouac looked more like a market than a camp. However we thought it but right to send back to their lawful owners the greatest portion of this cattle. Such are the vicissitudes of a soldier's life on service, abundance one day, and starvation the next, as literally proved the case on the following day. Not until noon on the 17th did we leave our bivouac in order to attack the English who still retained their position at Quatre Bras, and this time, to console us for our previous inactivity, d'Erlon's corps took the lead. On reaching our ground we awaited for a long time orders to attack, which we at last received from Napoleon in person. But the time had not even then arrived for us to prove our mettle, for the English position had been vacated by them, leaving only a rear guard of Cavalry which speedily followed them towards Brussels abandoning to us a battle-field as bloodstained as the former ones, for it was the scene of the desperate fighting of the 16th.

Let me describe for you some of the sights I there witnessed. At one spot, a battalion of Scotch Highlanders in square had evidently been shot down or sabred on the ground on which they stood, for the faces of the square were distinctly to be traced by the bodies of the slain. I was not so much surprised at this as by the dress of these gallant fellows. Their feathered bonnets, chequered tartans, and especially the short kilt exposing the brawny legs of the men, in a word all these strange things with which we are now so familiar, made at the time much impression on me as I then had never heard of those picturesque Highlanders with whom the pen of Sir Walter Scott has since made us so well acquainted. Meanwhile the afternoon was slipping away, and it must have been two or three o'clock before we commenced moving along the Brussels road, when suddenly a storm of unusual violence burst over our heads, and over the surrounding country. In a very few minutes roads and fields were turned into a perfect swamp, becoming more and more impracticable as the rain lasted all the rest of that day, and during the whole of the following night. Men and horses soon sank up to their knees in mud, the increasing darkness hid us from one another. Battalions got mixed up, each man plodding along as best and where he could—we lost the very semblance of an army for a time becoming a perfect mob. But in spite of all this the pursuit continued. Our advanced guard, entirely composed of cavalry and horse artillery, charged and cannonaded the English rear guard which opposed a vigorous resistance. Napoleon, with his cocked hat washed out of all shape by the rain, followed

on horseback, then came our division preceding the remainder of the army. At length we halted at the foot of Mont Saint Jean where so many thousands of our brave fellows little expected they were to perish on the morrow, the fact being that most of us fancied that Wellington's army was still scattered all round Brussels, and that it would take him several days to collect the whole of his forces —moreover being now within about three leagues of Brussels, we felt certain of getting possession of that city without delay. And who can say but that had we continued the pursuit an hour longer we should have left this fatal position at Mont Saint Jean in our rear? be this as it may, the pursuit and the cannonade now ceased and we had leisure to think of our bivouac—no easy matter. Our whole army as if by magic was now collected on these plains on which the scattered hamlets were not only difficult to find in the darkness, but when found afforded but scanty accommodation for our eighty thousand men. The few houses near us were very soon taken possession of by the General officers, their staff, servants and horses, to say nothing of the Commissariat officers who were not at all disposed to bivouac in the present wet weather. To get rid of importunate applicants for shelter, right or wrong they would declare their abodes were slotted to General This, or to Marshal So and So, so for that night we had to relinquish the idea of enjoying the shelter sometimes afforded to soldiers on active service. In the meantime, wet to the skin, we floundered on in the mud to occupy the ground assigned to us in divisional orders, and were then kindly permitted to be seated if quite agreeable and convenient to us—a lively prospect for the coming night! It was dark as pitch, the rain fell in torrents and unceasingly, and to add to our happiness and comfort we found ourselves at last in ploughed fields completely flooded, where we were left to the blessings of repose without wood, straw, or rations of any description, or means of procuring any.

At the hardness of our beds we had certainly not to grumble, for directly we lay down we sank several inches, and with the assistance of our shackos as pillows, no down bed could have been softer; we certainly found our couches rather cool, but on the other hand whenever we turned over we had the advantage of having the other side of our persons which might perchance have got rather muddy well washed by the rain. In spite of these obvious advantages many of our fellows were audibly grumbling, swearing and consigning to a hot place those who had located us in such a spot, so after a hearty growl we took refuge in the arms of Morpheus, a sure panacea for all human ills. I may hardly be believed, but if you will ask any one who has gone through a campaign he will corroborate my statement, that there are times when you are so utterly fatigued that you could sleep on a bed of bayonets, and much more so on mud, but no doubt the effects are felt in after life when rheumatic pains and aches come to remind us of those dismal lodgings on the damp ground. At an early hour on the 18th we arose from our miry

couch and after a hasty toilet our men who were now well rested ran in all directions to minister to our wants. We were soon able to light fires, and to grill some slices of cow beef which appeared to be delicious, and there was plenty to drink for there was no lack of water. Thus refreshed and our arms cleaned we awaited with impatience the order to move, which we fancied would soon be given, but to our great surprise many hours elapsed before we were ordered to change our position. To be sure ours was the corps most in advance so we had to wait, and see the others moving into alignment, and then deploying on our left preparatory to a general engagement. The idea then flashed upon our minds that what we soldiers style a regular good combing was at hand, for this we joyfully prepared encouraging each other to finish the campaign by one decisive blow. Alas, little did we then think how true our words were to prove! Ere long the army was deployed along the ridge of Mount Saint Jean. Since the morning the weather had cleared up and a brilliant sun was now shining on our long and glittering lines. It was indeed a splendid sight! Bayonets, helmets, and cuirasses were sparkling in the bright sunshine, a gentle breeze from time to time shook out the tricoloured folds of our standards and colours, and the pennons of the Lancers, drums were beating, and trumpets sounding, and the bands of every regiment struck up the air of "Veillons au Salut de l'Empire," as Napoleon for the last time rode along the lines of his gallant army.

Never could he have heard the old familiar cry of Vive l'Empereur shouted with greater enthusiasm, and never were feelings of the deepest devotion to his cause more strongly to be seen in the features, gestures and voices of his men, now wound up to the highest pitch of excitement. The long dark red lines of the English confronting us upon the opposite ridges made the scene still grander and more impressive. Time was however moving on apace. As the echoes of our drums died away, a profound and ominous stillness reminding one of that usually preceding a convulsion of nature prevailed. We await the signal with impatience. Between half past eleven and twelve o'clock the thunder from over one hundred of our guns suddenly burst upon our ears, the English Artillery speedily opened in reply.

The left of d'Erlon's corps rested on the Brussels high road stretching far away to some coppices on the extreme right of our position, and there we remained motionless for the two hours during which the cannonade lasted. According to custom we had covered our front with lines of skirmishers extended in the hollow ground which separated us from the English, and we had little to do, until the time came for us to attack their ridge, but patiently to receive their fire.

Meanwhile a desperate struggle was raging on our left in and around Hougomont, we there (uselessly it was said) expended a great many men in the attack on Hougomont, which was originally

only to have been a false one, to draw off the enemy's attention from the real attack reserved for d'Erlon's corps. When at last it was thought that the English had been sufficiently pounded by our guns, d'Erlon's four divisions of two regiments, or four battalions each were formed in separate columns of attack. Marcognet's division to which the 45th belonged was, like the others, to advance in line, battalion after battalion following the preceding one at an interval of four paces only. A faulty formation, and one that cost us dear, as we were thus unable to form squares against Cavalry, and the enemy's guns had a depth of twenty ranks to play upon. No one seemed to know to whom the first corps owed this disastrous formation which was probably the chief cause of our subsequent failure.

But this defective arrangement of our troops reminds me of the singular conduct of one of our officers, induced partly no doubt by the unusual manner in which we were ordered to advance. How true is the saying that farce and tragedy are so closely allied, the little episode that I am about to relate bears out this assertion.

In our battalion there was a rather thin and very tall captain, upwards of six feet four inches in heigth. He had served in Spain but had failed to bring back a great reputation for courage, fond as he was of rattling his R's in conversation. While our column under a heavy fire of canister shot was painfully toiling up the slope occupied by the enemy, our gallant friend probably, through inadvertence, kept edging closer and closer to the rear rank of the company in front of us, and doubtless considering it unfair to present a higher target to the enemy than his neighbours, he tried hard to conceal his head behind the shoulders of the man before him; with this object he bent his body nearly double in a most unsoldierlike attitude. Nor was this all, for soon perceiving that his position was becoming unpleasant, he turned sharply round, facing his company and stepped backwards balancing his sword as we do on parade to mark the cadence and correct the dressing, but in doing so in order not to lose the friendly shelter in his front he leant backwards in a still more ungraceful attitude than his previous one. He may at any rate boast of having afforded us a hearty laugh in a very serious moment.

At length our time has come, a frantic shout of Vive l'Empereur is our answer to the order to advance. The four columns step off with arms supported, and with ranks well closed up, we descend the slope into the hollow ground which divided us from the English whose batteries thunder upon us. The intervening space is but small, an ordinary pedestrian would have crossed it easily in five or six minutes, but the soft saturated ground and the tall rye we had to pass through much retarded our advance, and gave the English batteries ample time to do their work of death upon us. Yet there was no flinching, and when we at length reach the position, the drums beat the charge, the pace is quickened, and with a thousand cries of Vive l'Empereur we rush on the batteries. Sud-

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denly fresh obstacles arise. The English infantry, which had hitherto been concealed in a hollow road, spring up and open a murderous fire on us at a few yards distance. Nothing daunted we drive them back with the bayonet, and continue our advance through the gaps in a quick-set hedge which had partially concealed their guns, and with loud shouts of triumph we reach the plateau. But these efforts had disordered our formation, our ranks become mixed and before we could recover ourselves we are charged with the bayonet by fresh foes.* The struggle recommences, and a terrible melée ensues.

In our fearful state of confusion, our officers did their utmost to establish some sort of order among the companies. As I was pushing one of our men into his proper place in the ranks he suddenly sank under a sword cut, turning briskly round I saw the English Dragoons riding into our column, in every direction cutting our men down right and left. Although it is difficult, if not impossible, for the best Cavalry in the world to break a well formed Infantry square which defends itself with steadiness and courage, still when Infantry are broken and in confusion, resistance on their part is hopeless and Cavalry can mow them down with comparative impunity. Such was now our sad case. In vain did our poor fellows try and defend themselves with their bayonets, they had not a chance against these dragoons mounted as they were on powerful horses. The few shots this hapless and bewildered crowd could fire proved as dangerous to our own men as to the Cavalry. We were totally defenceless before these terrible dragoons,† who in their fury cut down every one they could reach, even to our poor drummer boys. It was then we lost our eagle, and then death stared me in the face, for my best and dearest friends were falling fast around me, and though still mechanically brandishing my sword I every instant expected to share their fate. As soon as we ceased to offer them any resistance, the main body of the enemy's cavalry prepared to cross the hollow in order to capture our guns, while the remainder carried off as prisoners the small remnant of our division still left standing. At this instant I had just been knocked down by a troop horse, and I found myself in company with many of our men who had either been killed or wounded, or knocked over like myself.

You will readily understand the enemy not losing much time in searching out the living among the dead, so they left me on the ground where I think it would have been prudent for me to have patiently awaited the result of the battle. In fact what would I gain by getting up? Only two things, either to surrender myself prisoner, or to try and get back to our lines by mixing myself among those about to attack them—apparently an insane attempt.

However when once more on my legs I adopted the latter alter-

* Kempt's brigade 28th, 32nd and 79th Regiments.

† The Scots Greys. Sergeant Ewart took the Eagle of the 45th.

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native for the love of liberty is almost as deeply rooted in our nature as the love of life. As you may believe I did not at that moment argue thus with myself, I merely obeyed an instinct. So I once more began to wend my way across this fatal valley, these saturated fields, and these trampled crops now smeared with blood, and strewn with corpses. I walked staggering along, my feet now and then entangled in the rye, and with such a suffocating feeling in my chest that I could scarcely breathe, and feeling as if I were walking in a dream, for I often fancied I had a nightmare, and that my legs refused to walk. I only saw near me a few scattered English dragoons on whom our batteries were playing, and I wondered how I should escape from either. I was so near the dragoons that I kept fancying some of them would infallibly cut me down, but my fears on that score were quite groundless as the dragoons had other things to mind at the time. Be that as it may, they and I went on towards our batteries together, and whilst they were sabring our gunners I slipped through and safely reached a little hollow about one hundred yards behind our guns, where I threw myself down to recover my breath. I daresay plenty of my comrades saved themselves in the same way, but my attention was naturally so wholly absorbed in my own fate that I never noticed them. Anyhow there was I safe for a few minutes in my little pit where I tried to collect my ideas, which I did with great difficulty, for as long as the danger was imminent my strength held out, but when once in safety my strength forsook me entirely, and I lay for some time nearly incapable of motion. Extreme fatigue, the pain of my two wounds which I now began to feel, and surprise at my unexpected escape affected me more than had done the actual dangers I had gone through—my wounds were but trifling—during the melée on the fatal plateau a horse's hoof had trodden on my foot, and I had received a bayonet thrust happily not on the knee itself, or I should have been quite unable to walk, but just above the knee, and with no worse results than that of making walking painful for a few days. How odd it is that the scar of so trifling a wound should be descernable more than fifty years afterwards, but there it is, and when I now by chance see on my leg a little five pointed star I cannot for the life of me help thinking of Waterloo.

To be continued.

NOTES ON THE HISTORY AND SERVICES OF THE EIGHTY-SIXTH REGIMENT OF FOOT (*Continued.*)

From Baroda a force, under the command of Captain Grant, 86th, consisting of 500 men of the Regiment, a battalion of native infantry, some irregular horse, and a small battering train, was despatched against the hill-fort of Powangurh, before which the troops arrived on the 14th of September, 1803. The garrison refusing to surrender, the fort was battered until the 17th, when

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orders were given for the assault, but the garrison capitulated. The only Mahratta territory remaining in Guzerat was thus reduced and annexed.

Colonel Murray, H.M.'s 84th, having arrived and assumed command at Baroda, the troops moved into Malwa in search of Holkar, and on the 18th of October possession was taken of Godra. Here the news was received of the victory of Assaye, which had been won three weeks previously, and of the consequent submission of Scindiah and the Rajah of Berar, which left only Holkar and some of the minor chieftains of the Mahrattas, as Canojee, in the field.

At the beginning of November, 1807, the troops took possession of Balassinore, and afterwards advanced on Lunawarree. On the march the rear of the column, composed of native troops, was attacked by the Mahratta horse with great fury, in repulsing which the 86th had several men killed and wounded.

Six weeks later Dhowd was taken, in which neighbourhood the troops remained a couple of months watching Holkar's movements. Thence they returned to Godra, and afterwards to Jerrode, to cover the frontier of Guzerat and also to make sure of their supplies, as a terrible famine was raging in the Deccan and other districts which had been the seat of war.

After a three weeks' stay at Jerrode, the 65th and 86th again moved into Malwa as far as Dhowd, where they arrived on the 12th of June, 1804. They suffered cruelly from the heat, the two Regiments having lost one officer and thirty-three men by sunstroke in one day, just before their arrival at their destination. From Dhowd the troops marched to Scindiah's capital, Oojein, whence the 86th with some native troops pushed on to Holkar's capital, Indore, where they arrived on the 14th of August, the city having been evacuated by the Mahrattas the evening before. Captain Richardson, 86th, with the flank companies of the Regiment and a battalion of native infantry was despatched from Indore against a fort, twenty miles distant, said to be full of troops and provisions, but when the walls were scaled the fort was found empty, the enemy having quitted it a few hours previously.

Colonel Murray had now advanced so far that his communications with Guzerat were cut off, and his watchful foe, seizing the opportunity, had threatened to enter and lay waste the province. The rainy season was approaching, and to make matters worse, a detachment from the Bengal Army, which Lord Lake had despatched, under command of Colonel the Honorable W. Monson, H.M.'s 76th, to effect a junction with Colonel Murray, was surprised and compelled to make a precipitate and most disastrous retreat, the painful details of which need not here be recalled. An immediate return was imperative; Murray, therefore, with a view to deceive the enemy, made a sudden advance of two marches,

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facing about on the third, and hastening back towards Guzerat. Rarely, even in the chequered page of Indian story, have troops endured severer trials and privations, or evinced a nobler spirit than was displayed by the Europeans in this retreat. The rains, we are told, set in with such exceptional violence that the tents were destroyed and officers and men were left without cover, the gun-bullocks and camels died by scores, the baggage had to be abandoned, and the guns dragged with ropes across the cotton-grounds waist-deep in water, on all sides the natives were perishing by famine, supplies were unprocurable, and the soldiers, European and native, were dying daily from exhaustion. But by the indomitable spirit of the troops the guns were saved, and the force got back to Oojein, its numbers reduced from six to three thousand. Spirited exertions were made to re-equip the remnant, and in October, 1804, it was once more in the field.

An advance was made in the direction of Kotah and Rampore, Inglehur and several other smaller hill-forts being captured *en route*. Holkar's army had by this time become routed and dispersed by the troops under Lord Lake, but hostilities had been prolonged by the treachery of the Rajah of Bhurtpore, to punish which, Lord Lake, notwithstanding the inadequacy of his resources, determined to lay siege to the famous Jât fortress.

Reinforcements from Bombay had by this time reached Malwa, and a column under command of Major-General Jones, was ordered to move in the direction of Bhurtpore so as to effect a junction with Lake's forces. After a long and harassing march, during which on more than one occasion the column was surrounded by clouds of Mahratta horsemen, the Bombay division reached the camp before Bhurtpore on the 11th of February, 1805, and was inspected by Lord Lake, who expressed his approval of the bearing of the troops. The 65th and 86th, we are told, presented a singularly motley appearance, their tattered uniforms patched with various colours or replaced by red-cotton jackets, and many of the men wearing sandals instead of shoes, and turbans in place of caps. A famous military engineer has recorded his opinion that "no policy at a siege can be worse than beginning operations with a small quantity of materials, and making the attack keep pace with the supply;" this error, undoubtedly, had been committed at Bhurtpore. Two sanguinary assaults had already failed, and the siege still dragged on, the duties falling with exceptional severity on the infantry working-parties and the artillerymen. On the 20th of February, at 3 a.m., a third assault was given, which failed utterly, after a loss of 894 killed and wounded. On this occasion 250 men of the 86th, with two companies of Bombay Native Infantry, were directed to attack an outwork covering one of the principal gates of the fortress, a service which they successfully performed, carrying the work at the point of the bayonet, driving the Arabs, who fought with their usual

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determination, into the city, and capturing eleven guns. Lieutenants Lamphier* and D'Aguilar,† (Adjutant and Acting Brigade-Major,) 86th, especially distinguished themselves on this occasion, the former receiving a spear-wound in the neck. As the Arab fugitives flocked to the gate, Captain Grant pushed on in hopes of entering with them, but the gate was shut on the head of the column, which by one account was actually inside, and afterwards destroying the fugitives outside, Captain Grant, carrying off the captured guns, retired into the Pettah, to await the result of the other attacks. Whilst the 86th and the Sepoys were hauling off their trophies, they were attacked by a strong body of Mahratta horse, who had issued from the fortress and endeavoured to retake them; but the effort was foiled by the steadiness of the troops. Forming a square round the guns, under a heavy fire, Captain Grant succeeded in bringing them safe into camp. This was the only successful part of the day's operations. The enemy's cavalry next attacked the camp, but were beaten off by the troops not engaged in the assault. The determined bravery of Captain Grant's detachment was commended by Lord Lake in General Orders, and the eleven captured guns were directed to be placed in front of the regimental lines, a distinction highly appreciated by the Regiment and the Bombay column of which it formed part.‡

At 3 a.m. on the following morning the fourth assault was given. A column composed of the flank companies of the 65th and 86th, supported by the 75th and 76th Regiments, under Lieutenant-Colonel Monson, stormed a large and high bastion, but their forlorn-hope, after passing the ditch, was destroyed in attempting to mount the breach, which was exceedingly steep and knee-deep in loose earth and stones. Every effort was made; the men climbing over the dead bodies of their comrades, but in vain. Some strove to climb in by the shot-holes made by the British guns, others drove their bayonets into the mud walls to ascend by, while the enemy above hurled large stones, logs of timber bales of flaming oiled cotton, and jars filled with combustibles upon their heads. The killed and wounded lay by hundreds, crushed beneath the falling timbers or burning under the flaring oiled cloth. After two hours of brave endeavour, during which the struggle raged unceasingly,§ Colonel Monson, seeing the impossibility of succeeding, ordered the retreat, and thus ended the fourth and last attack. The British loss amounted to over 1000 killed and wounded.

In the two attacks the 86th had two sergeants and twenty-

* Afterwards Lieutenant-Colonel Lamphier, whose services will be noticed on a future occasion.

† Afterwards Lieutenant-General Sir G. T. D'Aguilar, K.C.B., who died in 1855.

‡ Cannon's "Historical Records."

§ Thornton's "History of India," Vol. I.

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three men killed, Captain Moreton, Lieutenants Travers, Baird, Lamphier and D'Aguilar, one sergeant, one drummer, and seventy-three men wounded. A great number of the wounded died. Lieutenant Baird received five wounds, Lieutenant Lamphier was wounded each day, and this officer and Lieutenant D'Aguilar distinguished themselves on both occasions. Sergeant George Ibertsen was commended in Regimental Orders for his conduct at the breach, and Corporal Crawfurd was rewarded with the rank of sergeant for his behaviour on the same occasion.*

The capture of Bhurtpore, without additional means, proving impractical, Lord Lake moved his forces in the direction of Gwalior, halting *en route* at Dholpore. Here negociations for peace having been concluded, the Army was broken up, and the Bengal column proceeded to Muttra and the Bombay to Tonk, where they remained in huts during the monsoon.

Cannon ("Historical Record") gives the following return of the officers and men present with Lord Lake's Army on the 1st of December, 1805 :—

Major Cuyler,(*) commanding brigade; Captain John Grant, commanding regiment; Captain Baird; Lieutenants Maurice, M'Laurin, H. Steele, T. Lamphier, and G. T. D'Aguilar; Quartermaster Smith, Surgeon Dean, Assistant-Surgeon Bellars;(*) 48 sergeants, 19 drummers, 354 rank and file. The officers whose names are thus distinguished (*) were Egyptian medallists.

After the rains, the Bombay column continued its march through Jeypore, in pursuit of Holkar, who still kept the field, penetrating as far as the left bank of the Sutlej, where finding himself disappointed of the aid he had expected from the Sikhs, the Mahratta chieftain tendered his submission, and the hostilities came to an end.

In General Order, date Riapoora Ghaut, left bank of the Sutlej, 13th of December, 1805, Lord Lake notified his thanks to Major-General Jones and the officers and men, European and Native, of the Bombay column, adding :—"His Lordship has been pleased to witness on every occasion on which they have been employed, the steady conduct and gallantry in action of all the troops composing the division."

From their camping-ground on the Suttej, then generally known by its ancient name of the Hyphasis, the Bombay troops commenced their return march, reaching the Presidency on the 29th of March, 1806.

During the ten years elapsed since the Regiment left England in the summer of 1796, it had sailed round the Cape to India, twice had traversed the Red Sea, twice crossed the Egyptian Desert; it had served in South Africa, in Egypt, in Ceylon, in all the three Presidencies of India; with other corps of Lake's

* Cannon's "Historical Records."

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Army it had penetrated further to the north-west than any previous British troops; and in the course of five years incessant Indian field-service ten of its officers and over a thousand non-commissioned officers and men had laid down their lives—a brave record, though but a brief part of the long rule of gallant services in connection with our Eastern Empire commemorated by the word "India" inscribed on the regimental colours and appointments some twenty years later.

Soon after its arrival at Bombay, the 86th was ordered to Goa, where a British occupation was considered expedient as a precautionary measure, and landed on the rock of Agoado near that place, on the 3rd of April, 1806; the same year the Regiment was ordered to be styled the 86th or "Leinster" Regiment of Foot, and Lieutenant-General Sir C. Ross, Bart., from the 85th, succeeded to the colonelcy.* About the same time 213 volunteers were received from the 77th Regiment, ordered home—probably the detachment shown in the regimental muster-rolls of 1807 as at Cawnpore—and also a small draft from England, of whose services something must be said.

In the summer of 1805, an army had been collected at Cork, under the command of Sir Eyre Coote, for the defence of the West Indies. The victory of Trafalgar having rendered this service unnecessary, a part of the troops was embarked under command of Sir David Baird, on a secret expedition, the object of which was the recapture from the Dutch of the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope. With this force were embarked, the 1st Battalion 59th, destined for Madras when its services could be spared from the Cape, and also some details of the 86th and other regiments serving in India, amounting to 149 of all ranks.*

In Cannon's "Historical Record," it is stated that the 86th draft was composed of Lieutenant Michael Creagh, Ensigns Blackall and Hillhouse, Paymaster Cope, and thirty non-commissioned officers and men, but the despatches show that other officers of the 86th were embarked, one of whom, Captain Sorrell, was appointed by Sir D. Baird Assistant Adjutant-General to the Ex-

* The compiler of the "Notes" has failed to discover the origin of this title. The new Colonel, Sir Charles Ross, was a man of property and influence in Ireland, but appears to have had no special connection with the province of Leinster. Of two regiments which he had previously raised, one was Scotch, the 116th Perthshire Highlanders, the other the 2nd Battalion 85th, of which he was Colonel-Commandant, was formed from the English Militia. Although the Irish element was strongly represented among the officers, the 86th had hitherto been chiefly recruited in England. Probably the heavy losses during the Mahratta campaigns were made up by drafts from the Irish Militia regiments, which at that time furnished so many fine soldiers to the Regular Army, and the connection may have suggested the title. No muster-rolls of the Regiment now exist for the period between 1799 and 1807, and Mr. Cannon, whose "Historical Record" was compiled forty years ago from materials then in possession of the Regiment, mentions no drafts except those specified above.

† "Military Transactions," compiled by Quartermaster-General's Dept.

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peditionary Force. The expedition called at Bahia in Brazil, where the troops were put on shore for a few weeks, and thence proceeded to Table Bay, where they arrived on the 4th of January, 1806. On the 6th of January, the heavy surf which was prevailing on the coast having somewhat abated, the Highland brigade under General Ferguson, consisting of the 71st, 72nd, and 93rd Highland Regiments, the latter having the drafts of the 78th and 86th in its ranks, landed in Lospard's Bay, experiencing a slight opposition from a light corps of the enemy scattered along the heights bordering the shore. On this occasion Colonel Pack, 71st, and a few men were wounded, and thirty-five men lost by the upsetting of a boat in the surf.

The stores being landed on the 7th, the troops advanced on the following day, and ascending the Blue Berg, perceived the enemy drawn up on a plain in two lines of about 5,000 men, with 23 guns. General Baird directed the first brigade, consisting of the 24th, 59th, and 83rd Regiments, under Colonel James Baird to move to the right, whilst the Highland brigade, thrown forward on the high road, advanced to meet the enemy, who opened a heavy fire of grape, round shot, and musketry. Seemingly determined to retain their position, the enemy kept up a smart fire as the troops advanced, till General Ferguson gave the order to charge. A charge so impetuous followed that the enemy, panic struck, fired their last volley without aim or effect, and breaking at all points, fled in confusion, having sustained a loss of more than 600 killed and wounded, whilst that of the British was only 16 killed and 191 wounded. The 93rd lost Lieutenant-Colonel Honeywood and two men killed, Lieutenants Scobie and Strahan, 78th, and Lieutenant Creagh, 86th attached, and Ensign Heddrick, 93rd, one sergeant, one drummer, and fifty-one privates wounded. Two days later the colony was surrendered.*

After a short stay in Cape Town the 86th and other drafts proceeded with the 59th Regiment to Madras, thence they were forwarded to their respective corps.

At Goa, Lieutenant-Colonel Hastings Fraser† assumed the command, having arrived from Europe overland, and Major Cuyler returned home.‡

* "Military Transactions," 1809. Stewart's "Scottish Highlanders," Vol. II. "History of the 93rd Sutherland Highlanders."

† Afterwards Lieutenant-General Hastings Fraser. This officer entered the Service in 1787, and made the principal campaigns of 1790-99 as an officer in the 74th Highlanders. He commanded the 86th for some years. He died in London in 1852.

‡ A tribute is due to the memory of this brave officer, whose services have been unaccountably neglected in the "Historical Records" of the corps in which he served. Lieutenant-Colonel George Cuyler was the fourth son of General Cornelius Cuyler, who raised the 86th Regiment, and subsequently was Colonel of the 69th Foot, and who was created a baronet in 1814. He entered the Army in 1787 in the 55th Foot, then commanded by his father, and was promoted to a company in

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In February, 1808, Captain John Grant, of the Regiment, also left for England, when the Governor of Bombay (Duncan) published the following complimentary notice in the Presidency General Order:—

"The Honourable the Governor-in-Council cannot allow Captain Grant,* H.M.'s 86th Regiment, to depart without being accompanied by this testimonial to the credit which that meritorious officer has done to the British arms during his service in India, at the siege of Baroda, the capture of the important fortresses of Baroach and Powanghur, and particularly in the arduous and successful attack of the column, which Captain Grant commanded, on the 20th of February, 1805, at the siege of Bhurtpore, on which occasion he gallantly carried the enemy's posts and captured the whole of his guns, eleven in number, &c."

Early in 1809 orders were received for the removal of the 86th from Goa, to form part of a field-force to that assembled in the Presidency of Madras, in anticipation of further disaffection among the native troops. The following notification, dated the Palace, Panjim, 16th of August, 1809, was issued by the Portuguese Viceroy and Captain-General of the Indies on its departure.

"On the departure of His Britannic Majesty's 86th Regiment from Goa His Excellency the Viceroy and Captain-General of the Portuguese possessions in Asia avails himself of the opportunity to express his sentiments of praise and admiration of the regular order and conduct which Lieutenant-Colonel Fraser and the officers and soldiers of that corps have so honourably observed during a period of three years, which they have been employed in the territories subject to his authority, so creditable to the discipline of the Regiment.

"His Excellency the Viceroy will never forget the invariable harmony which has always subsisted between the subjects of H.R.H. the Prince Regent of Portugal and all ranks of His Britannic Majesty's 86th Regiment, whose remembrance will be always grateful to him; and he doubts not they will continue to acquire, in whatever part of the world their services may be

the 86th, on the formation of that corps. He served with it in the Channel and North Sea, in the Cape, Egypt, and throughout the Indian campaigns of 1802-05. On his return home he was appointed Inspecting Field Officer of Militia in Nova Scotia, and subsequently Lieutenant-Colonel of the 11th Regiment, the 1st Battalion of which he commanded in the Peninsular War with distinction on several memorable occasions, particularly at Salamanca, where the battalion had 340 officers and men killed and wounded out of 412 of all ranks present, and at Toulouse, in both of which engagements he was wounded (gold medal and C.B.) He died at Portsmouth in February, 1818, immediately after the return of the regiment from Gibraltar.

* This gallant officer was promoted to a Majority in the 89th Regiment in 1809, and was shortly afterwards killed in the ridiculous attempt upon Fuengarola, near Malaga, made by Lord Blayney with a small force from Gibraltar. An interesting account of the affair will be found under the heading of "A Story of Old Gibraltar," in "Once a Week," for August 2, 1861.

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called for, glorious claims on the rewards of their Sovereign and the admiration of their country."

Leaving Goa, the Regiment proceeded in boats up the river to Candeaparr, whence it ascended the Ghauts. The monsoon having set in, the men suffered much from the incessant rains and inundations, and after a long march through the Mahratta territories, arrived at Bellary on the 18th of September, 1809. The 2nd Battalion Royals, the 86th, and two battalions of Native infantry formed the first brigade under Lieutenant-Colonel Fraser, to which Lieutenant M. Creagh was appointed Brigade-Major. A large force assembled under command of Colonel Conran, of the Royals, but the Native troops against whom it was prepared to act returned to their duty. The 86th then garrisoned Bellary and Gooty; Captain James Burke and many non-commissioned officers and soldiers died from the effect of the fatigues they had undergone. Soon afterwards the Regiment returned to Goa.*

(*To be continued.*)

PUT YOUR FAITH *ALONE* IN PRINCES!!

By Henry Bowles Franklyn, LL.D.

The great organ of the English Nation, the *Times*, in its issue of the 19th of November, says:—"The whole of the Law of the Army appears to be in a state of confusion far surpassing that of our own Criminal Code, on this point we are promised reforms." We propose to see whether we can uphold this statement, and for that purpose take the very last case which has been going on at Chatham during some days, and the reader will be able to judge for himself whether Military Law *is or is not* in a most deplorable state, and although His Royal Highness did happily step in in a just manner and quash all the proceedings, yet the mental and bodily suffering caused to the prisoner, and his anxiety during a most unheard of delay in these, cannot be compensated for by the orders issued from the Commander-in-Chief's office "that the record is not to be preserved." It has been said "Put *not* your faith in Princes!" but we continue to do so in the one at the head of the Army, as the soldier does in his *good Prince George*, more particularly when there is no burking carried on, but things are brought under his special notice. We wish, however, that we could believe that such were always the case, but we know, on the contrary, that it is only at the last moment, as in some cases at Woolwich, that the murder *has out*, much to the great soldier's annoyance.

In the case with which we propose to deal, to show the state of, and what goes on in our Military Courts of Law, a poor

* "Records of the 1st Royal Regiment." "Records of the 86th Foot."

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sapper's death has been the cause of all the trouble, a dose of Burnett's Solution, or in other words, Chloride of Zinc, having been by accident administered to him and another man, who, however, fortunately recovered by means of an antidote, exhibited by the Staff-Sergeant himself, who was the victim tried by court-martial when the General called out "Whom shall we hang?"

To commence with the legal points of the case.

It being one of sudden death, a coroner's court, to whom the country trusts itself in like cases, assembled, and having viewed the body, taken evidence at length, Her Majesty's coroner summed up, and twelve Englishmen good and true, deliberated thereon, a verdict, and a most proper one, was returned of *Accidental Death!* Now one would have supposed that this very finding of a legal court would at least have put an end to further proceedings, for clearly if it were a pure accident it could not have been due to diliberate neglect, otherwise manslaughter would have been returned. We however find that some of the military authorities thought differently, although it was a toxicological case. The point we wish here to press on attention is that the Surgeon-General, an administrative officer of ability and high position, in a praiseworthy manner now applied for the liberation of the prisoner. If he did not understand the case from beginning to end, who did? If he were not an expert on whom the country relies, who was? Yet he is met by the General of the District's refusal, in fact quietly put aside!

To continue, however; the man is put under arrest by the General without even a crumb of explanation being given him, he is kept in utter ignorance till a District court-martial is ordered to sit, and we now come to the composition of the court for his trial.

It may be remarked that both the men poisoned, one of whom, thanks to the Sergeant himself, recovered, belonged to the Ordnance Corps, and we would prefer to look at the Royal Artillery and Royal Engineers as one, because in most cases *this is so* socially, and they have generally the same mess at large stations. The president detailed belonged to the Royal Artillery, next comes a captain of the Royal Engineers, next a subaltern of the same corps, and finally a captain of the same corps is made prosecutor. Surely this was a preponderance of officers of the corps concerned, and particularly as military prosecutors (and we say so without fear of contradiction) understand so little of their duties. The rest of the court was made up of one captain and subaltern 99th Regiment, one subaltern 5th Fusiliers, and one subaltern Royal Marine Light Infantry, in fact, a *nice make up it was*, all of whom acted as jury and judges; and the prosecutor, a highly intelligent man, like all Royal Engineers, really appeared doing all in his power to obtain a conviction against the poor

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sergeant on account of the misfortune that by *accident* had befallen the men of his own corps.

Now had this case been before a civil tribunal, and any such preponderance existed, or any idea that personal feeling might enter into the minds of the jury, naturally a writ of *certiorari* would have issued and removed the case to another court, for some men, and particularly military men, find it difficult to look at legal points in cool blood, and are most easily prejudiced *pro* and *con*, even before a trial commences; and perhaps this was the cause of a rule as enunciated by a previous Judge Advocate-General as follows:

"Where a personal or pecuniary interest exists, there should not be in the court a preponderance of officers of the corps concerned," as when a bandsman stole an instrument, and there being a preponderance of officers of his corps, the proceedings were not confirmed. Therefore, without wishing in the slightest degree to cast any idea of premature unfairness on the officers of the Royal Artillery and Royal Engineers forming part of the court, nor to call it a packed jury, we say that they were out of proportion as against the prisoner's interest, and that the whole of these Ordnance officers, with their prosecutor, would be likely to tend to a miscarriage of justice, and which is the more clear when we look at the unwarrantable delay in the case for the prosecution, and the consequent and unnecessary augmentation of mental and bodily suffering of the prisoner; so clearly against Paragraph II. Court-martial procedure laid down in the officers' little "red bible," viz.:—

"The Court has the power of granting an adjournment for the purpose of obtaining further evidence either on behalf of the prosecution or prisoner, but they should in no case grant this *unless they are convinced* that such adjournment and production of the evidence desired is not unjust to the prisoner, and that it is necessary to assist the course of justice; great care is therefore to be taken both by the prosecuting officer and the prisoner to have ready at the trial all the witnesses and documents they may desire to produce in support of their respective cases."

We would therefore like to ask,

1. If the adjournment and the amendment of the charges five separate times for the benefit of the prosecutor, and the telegraphing for a new witness from a distance is in keeping with the above?

2. Whether such was for the furtherance of justice, when a coroner's court of the British realm had already sat and its *fiat* gone forth—*Accidental Death?*

3. Whether any care could have been taken, or knowledge of law shown, in framing charges which the court allowed the prosecutor to amend five separate times?

But we have not quite done with the composition of the Court.

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We know that when a departmental officer is tried, he should by the rules and custom of the Service, have an officer of his own department sitting as a member, and for this reason officers of the Medical and Commissariat Departments have before now been called upon to take their place in the Court, although the word non-combatant, at all events as regards the former of these, *has* obtained, but must before long be abolished for ever. Why then, we ask, in such a case as this, purely a *poisoning* case, when a non-commissioned officer of the Medical Department is tried, was not that Department ordered to supply a member? and the case is made much stronger because, in not detailing one of them, it was in a manner throwing over the last Royal Warrant, which declares that from henceforth officers of the Medical Department are to command men of their own corps, and actually by its force put Surgeon-General Mackinnon, C.B., in command at Aldershot, and others elsewhere, in spite of confidential circulars issued for the purpose of combatting its Royal Clauses, which were deemed in some cases inconvenient. It may have been hitherto convenient to regard them as non-combatants, but yet they have never been considered so when in the trenches, and the man who planned the masterly operations by which the great Napoleon was crushed at Leipsic, declared the contrary on the field of battle, and, with every wish for the good of the Service, we question whether it is convenient to continually exclude them from their legitimate places in the executive of the Army, where, as in this case, one of their number was urgently required in justice to the prisoner. A very great English judge, whose work is the bible of lawyers, "Blackstone," has laid it down "that an officer objected to on the score of prejudice, should ask leave to withdraw in most cases;" but here we find that in addition to a preponderance of officers of the corps concerned, as members of the Court, the Royal Engineer prosecuting captain stuck to his post, and the objection taken to him by the captain of orderlies himself, who was to furnish character, having been referred, was as usual, in nearly every case whether valid or invalid, over-ruled at the Brigade Office.

We now come to the charges five times amended, and the poor prisoner consequently five times warned, which does not, it must be allowed, make it appear that the prosecutor was as much at home with his Military Law, as no doubt he would have been at throwing up an earthwork, and which the more proves the truth of the old proverb, "Every man to his trade," which the Horse-Guards yet still refuse to see.

1st Time Warned.

(1) Conduct to the prejudice of good order military discipline and neglect of duty at the Casualty Hospital, Chatham Barracks at or about 1 p.m. on the 11th October, 1878, in having allowed 3,285 Private C. Davis, A.H.C., to fill a stock bottle with medi

cine from a jar, without previously ascertaining the contents of the said jar.

2nd Time Warned.

Conduct to the prejudice of good order and military discipline in having grossly neglected his duty at the Casualty Hospital at Chatham Barracks at or about 1 p.m. on the 11th October, 1878, in the following instances—(which we must see are becoming beautifully greater).

(1) In allowing poison to be taken from the surgery, under his charge in an irregular manner.

(2) In having neglected to keep poisons under lock and key as strictly laid down in the regulations A.H.C., Para. 115-116. (Truly, this amendment is worthy of "le génie" itself, and the reader will as we get on further remember this when it comes out in evidence about lists of poisons, detailing what were to be under lock and key.)

3rd Time Warning.

Conduct as in the 2nd warning.

(1) In allowing Burnett's Disinfecting fluid of a poisonous nature to be taken from the surgery in an irregular manner.

(2) In allowing the afore-mentioned poisonous fluid to stand in close proximity to a jar containing a medicine in daily use and without a label on it.

(3) Having neglected to keep the afore-mentioned poisonous fluid under lock and key as strictly laid down in the regulations for A.H.C., page 25, Para. 154, 155, 156.

(Not it would appear then as before stated 115 and 116, and prosecutor probably not having heard that according to quantities, or peculiar idiosyncracies, medicines and poisons are identical).

4th Time Warned.

Instead of 6th Word of 2nd iustance 3rd time read "which had no label on it."

5th Time Warned.

Insert in 1st instance above between the words poisonous and nature "and dangerous."

And be it remarked that this last amendment was in the afternoon before the unfortunate Sergeant's trial.

However, we have now got the Court assembled, *one of Her Majesty's open courts*, and will not trespass too long on the reader's time.

The 1st Witness for the prosecution on his examination in chief testified that he did all in a hurry; the Sergeant was heavily occupied with his official returns; that he put his bottles when filled into a bag and decamped without *even telling* the Sergeant of his leaving the surgery, and giving no one the opportunity of seeing whether he had the proper medicines or anything else. But the Sergeant actually *did* make up the gargle himself and it came out on cross examination that neither on this nor on any

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occasion did the Sergeant allow him to handle medicines, that he did it on his own account, or at the bidding, *not* of the Sergeant but a Private in the surgery, and that he had, *actually unknown to the Sergeant*, crawled under the counter out of sight; to get at the poison *like a rat after aniseed*, and in fact unknown to any one. Verily Witness No. 1 does not support the case for the *ingenious* prosecution. Now let us see what comes next!

The 2nd Witness called by the prosecutor proved so hostile to his case, that even had he put to him leading questions they might have been allowed as being a witness that was called *pro* and proved *con unexpectedly* hostile. It is in evidence here that on the man coming for medicines, he, the orderly, asked the Sergeant to be allowed to make up the gargle, probably this was white, as composed of alum and water, and the more liable to error. The Sergeant knowing that this was a request against rules, actually *threw down the pen with which he was writing*, and said, "You will do no such thing." He then rose, although much occupied with his weekly returns, and made up the gargle himself, the orderly filled the cough mixture bottle from the stock one, and did not even see the other who took upon himself, like the aforesaid *rat*, to crawl under the counter and fill from the poison (*not the aniseed bottle*) on which it was afterwards proved beyond doubt that there *was* a label in the Sergeant's own hand-writing, as it actually came off on the damp cloth of the orderly, and shewing how careful a man the Sergeant was.

Of course the eyes of the prosecutor now commenced to be opened, and he found he had called witnesses damning to his case, and must beat about for others, although against the very spirit of the Queen's Regulations. The Court assisted him in this by adjourning, and telegraphing for another witness far away, losing entire sight of the grand rule in English Law, "That every prisoner is considered innocent till conviction, and that it is a *far higher duty* to protect him on the part of the Court than to assist in even the conviction of a guilty man."

The 3rd Witness having duly arrived and been put under examination, in spite of the strong objections made by the poor prisoner, who here handed in the Queen's Regulations, which were over-ruled; no doubt on the mistaken ground of satisfying justice, although the Coroner's court had fully done that already. What we ask was elicited from this gentleman? "That he did not know whether there was on the 11th a label on the cathartic jar, and that even had the cupboard been the proper place for it, it would not have fitted there."

Clearly then we have got no further in our case for the prosecution, for the witness being a medical man was one of the best it could have had. We now come to the fourth and next witness, also a medical man, whose evidence is the most extraordinary. Not only does he say that the poisonous jar should not have been

placed in the cupboard, in fact goes against the charges of the prosecutor *who called him*, but he says it should have been kept in the dead house. Here is a truly new idea. Now let us ask this gentleman whether he has ever during his service seen a severe epidemic of cholera, enteric or yellow fever, &c., in which the use of Burnett's solution, or other disinfectant is constantly required at all hours of the day and night to disinfect every commode and basin in the wards, and on which the safety of all concerned depends in keeping down the spreading of a powerful contagion. Is the dead house, which is sometimes at a distance from the hospital, to be the place for keeping this fluid, and orderlies to be employed running to and fro night and day in any weather to get at it? Was there ever such a statement made! And this is one of those gentlemen who have been sent out as a shining light from Netley to look after the sanitation of the army. Truly we hope that he may never have the misfortune to be cross-examined by a Sergeant Ballantine, a Douglas Straight or a Montague Williams. He goes on to say, that there was no label on the cathartic jar on the 12th. What is the use of such fencing? What have we to do with the 12th? It is with the 11th that we have to deal, and he did not know whether there was one on that day, which at a later period of the trial was proved to be the case. It has been said that medical men make the worst witnesses in Courts of Justice, and that the opposing counsel are always glad to get them for cross examination, and in this case the witness would appear to bear out the saying. Finally he allowed that there was no list of poisons supplied to compounders as to what was to be kept out of reach. Even if the large jar aforesaid *could* have been placed there and out of the reach of the *rat*, it is in direct opposition to the earthwork of argument thrown up by the prosecuting Engineer Captain, who might as well have told the prisoner to keep a *carboy* in his pack or valise, and this ends the case for the prosecution, unable to produce a single fact or a scintilla of evidence in its favour; and we now come to the explanation of the poor sergeant, for really a *defence* was not required.

Not only was the label proved to be on the jar, and that, the Sergeant had forbidden any interfering with the medicines, but two experts gave in evidence that Burnett's solution was not kept under lock and key at civil hospitals, and that in one of our largest military ones at Chatham itself it was kept on a shelf, and that no list of poisons was given to compounders for their guidance.

Now it is very evident from what has gone before that had this case been going on before a Civil Tribunal, the judge would have stopped it before the case for the defence came on, there being none launched by the prosecution, and yet the Court do not appear to have seen this at all in the evidence. It is particularly to be remarked that not only was the poor sergeant in complete ig-

norance of what had occurred until the day afterwards, but that the jar had not been left where he had placed it, but was in another place. Why truly it is like refusing to recognise an alibi when such alibi is proved, for the jar once moved would be supposed to remove his responsibility in allowing the tampering with such, and the words of the prosecutor in his charge "*in proximity*" fall to the ground like a badly inflated balloon. It is proved beyond doubt that the whole occurred from the officiousness, hurry, and meddling propensities of an ignorant orderly, *the before mentioned rat after his aniseed*, and in nine years' experience the Sergeant had not seen a surgery without Burnett's Solution We must now call to the attention of our readers that although two men were poisoned, yet one being immediately treated by antidotes recovered, thanks to the careful Sergeant who administered them, and got them ready. Why was not the other man *the first Sapper* thus treated? Was it enquired when he was found to be seriously ill, what was the matter? and his symptoms looked into? It appears not! but that he was *without* any treatment sent off to Fort Pitt, and this was probably the cause of his death, for moments are in such cases life itself. Here then it must be allowed is a serious phase in the case in connection with the deceased sapper, which we are inclined to recommend to the prosecutor's notice as explanation of his *regimental* misfortune.

It can be easily understood that when the death of the Sapper took place, the Sergeant being suspected of its cause might have been put in arrest if he could not give any explanation, but it is to be remarked that this arrest took place by order of the general officer at Chatham without any charge being made, or *any crime* being mentioned, or the Sergeant being, *in army parlance*, taken *in front* of his commanding officer. He was on the contrary kept in total ignorance. The Coroner's Inquest sat, and returned its verdict of *accidental death!* and on this the Surgeon-General of the district applied for the release of the prisoner, this was deliberately refused by the General commanding, but it does not appear whether he acted on his own responsibility or whether orders were sent him for this most extraordinary conduct, which cannot be accounted for by idly talking of military discipline used as a *military legal fiction*, and for keeping the principal medical officer of his district at arm's length, and as knowing nothing at all in the matter.

It is further to be remarked that when the case for the prosecution completely broke down on the Monday, and the Court adjourned it; the medical witness No. three was not telegraphed for till the following day; there was no hurry it appeared for going on with the poor non-commissioned officer's case, although it is

* When a prisoner is undefended it is the duty of the prosecutor to ask witnesses questions favourable to the prisoner, for his duty is to lay all material evidence before the Court.

strictly laid down that no unnecessary delay is to be allowed in getting over a prisoner's trial. It is in keeping in fact with constant complaints of prisoners at the daily visits of the officer of "Oh, sir, I have been for weeks in the guard-room awaiting trial," or, "Please, sir, order me my bed!" Barbarous treatment! and this when His Royal Highness has so strongly expressed his disapproval of delay. In the present case the court-martial proceedings have been going about, as well they might, marked *private and confidential* for they never should (as is now proved) have seen the light, and it is only another example of how necessary was the assembly of the Committee last summer on the Mutiny Act, which unfortunately was so hurried over, that it is allowed by some of its own members to have been nearly a farce, and not likely to be of much ulterior benefit to the Service beyond the granting of increased powers to the commanding officer in his court, and consequent reduction of petty court-martials. The point however required to be pressed by such members as General the Honourable Sir Alexander Gordon, K.C.B., and Major O'Beirne is not action for the reduction of the numbers of courts-martial but what Sir Colman O'Loghlan was hoping to do before he was so unfortunately called away. "The proper reception or rejection of evidence at courts-martial, and the conducting of these courts in a proper and legal manner." This can never be done till Law and Evidence enter into the education of officers of all departments of the Service, even medical officers, who are generally supposed by the Horse Guards to know nothing but of pills and powders and a few other things, while the so-called combatant is fit for any position by reason of that magic talisman, *a fighting commission*, even if held for a month.

It was a great blow to this tradition when Lord Carnarvon appointed one medical officer Governor of the Gold Coast and West African settlements, and another the administrator of Lagos. In fact, officers, combatant or non-combatant, cannot understand a sebject till they have learnt it, and they do not learn either Law or Evidence. At present the position is exceedingly bad, as numerous cases are, we hear, coming before Parliament next session in connexion with both Courts-martial and, what are still more unfair, Courts of Inquiry with action thereon, and His Royal Highness has in his examination before a Committee allowed the ignorance of those who sit as jury and judges on Her Majesty's officers and soldiers.

In the present case, either the old antipathy to be associated in the Executive with Medical Officers, or it may be the having been so long accustomed to ignore them, accounts for the absence of one, at least, of these in this purely toxicological case. That this would have assisted the Court in its knowledge of Law of Evidence we do not say, but it would have simplified matters, and was the proper place of one of the so-called non-combatants;

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besides would have done away with the unfair preponderance of Royal Artillery and Engineer officers. In noticing this, does it not appear strange that the tide in favour of the recognition of the Red Cross Knight should have set in from the North in the person of the Empress of all the Russias, and extended southward and westward?

The future Empress of Germany, our own Princess Alice, the greatest Captains of the Age, the Crown Prince and Red Prince, and even the Mecklenburg God of War, are all recognising his services. That every civilised nation should be doing so, and yet that we should still be hanging back is what we should not have expected in the nineteenth century. The term non-combatant, applied to the Medical Department of the British Army, is productive of great mischief, prevents their proper employment, robs them of nearly all they hope for, and is but a bad return for all that such men as Larrey did for France, and Sir James McGrigor, and his fellow-workers, did for England. One might as well have called the Master of a man-of-war a non-combatant, although the Lieutenants were allowed to take away his precedence. Surely it is time that those men "Military Surgeons," who stare so often death in the face in cold blood, and during a campaign banter Providence on a full and empty stomach, should be, at last, put in their proper place, and assist (as they would have done in this case) the Service for its own good. Who knows whether the vote of one of them, had he been a sensible man, might not have prevented the late finding of guilty, on all points, and in the face of the evidence at the late Court-Martial, which was assembled in spite of the rule of Law, "that no man shall be put in bodily fear twice for the same offence," for was not the sergeant in bodily fear of a verdict of manslaughter. If he were not, the more does it morally prove his innocence; one of the first points in what a Court Martial *should* be "*a Court of Equity.*" It were well to read what Sir Charles Napier says on this, and it is only idle to say, that the charge against the sergeant was different at the Court-Martial to that which was considered at the Coroner's Inquest. They were substantially the same. It was on account of a man being killed by poison, and the arrest of the sergeant, by the General, was on this and no other, and surely not to be upheld. In proof of this, we will just quote a parallel case which occurred at Woolwich three years back, and at which the writer watched the case for a Military Surgeon at the Inquest, concerning the death of a child, the authorities there being all ready to hang the doctor. During the enquiry, the order of the surgeon for the ambulance was put in by our advice, and on which he had written: *Immediate—horses to trot.* This discharged him from responsibility, although the jury attached a rider to their verdict of accidental death, blaming him for want of medical discernment in the diagnosis of disease.

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What we want to point out here is, that the authorities did not take any further steps in the matter, and the Horse-Guards are known to be fond of precedents. Why then was a Court-Martial ordered in the late case at Chatham and the Surgeon-General's request deliberately refused?

We have gone into this case at some length to show, that in spite of all the regulations laid down and the laws of evidence written and re-written they are barely known as existing, and much less understood. The Government have many good and faithful servants in officers, non-commissioned officers, and men, and some of these must from time to time commit errors, what they ask is, a *fair trial* if necessary, and *no trial* when unnecessary, and it rests with His Royal Highness whether he will not examine still more deeply for himself, into the practice of military courts, and the capabilities of military judges and juries; and if he can make a step towards teaching them what they ought to know, commencing with the proper composition of the courts themselves, the country will thank him, for at present one is obliged to say, "Put not your faith in these, but "*im gegentheil*," in Princes."

RUSSIA'S ASIATIC POLICY.

(*Continued*).

Is the Russian press deceitfully ingenuous, or boastfully disingenuous? This is the question which now agitates the public mind, while it serves as a weapon of argument alike for those who uphold the Ameer in his recalcitrant conduct, and for those who look upon Sheer Ali as a puppet moved by the Russian mission. In any case it is alarming—that war to the knife should be openly proclaimed in one paper, while another urges the offer of subservient aid to the enemy, and another suggests wily, but direct, antagonism to ourselves, whilst all, more or less, counsel an improvement of the shining hour of peace by furnishing the material of war to the Afghans before international usage forbids the importation of arms, is a condition of press-life exceptional and remarkable in St. Petersburgh only to be accounted for by the strong sympathy and silent approval of the Russian Asiatic Department in the State. But this, after all, is of a piece with their general method of fostering calculated insubordination among their outpost Commanders. A General Kaufmann, for instance, stationed in Tashkend with 20,000 restless troops, spoiling for a fight, reads this inciting literature in the manner indicated between the lines, and, naturally enough, sees his way to an advance. But success must attend it, or the effort will be repudiated, and the General suspended. It may be a case of *nulla vestigia retrorsum* for the unfortunate Commander, but it

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is always easy for the Czar to plead ignorance of intention, and yet to profit by the indiscretion of his subordinate in the usurpation of fresh territory. This, however, was not the procedure in the initiatory proceedings taken on the present occasion. On the contrary, as we now know, a well-found force was organised during the doubtful days of the Berlin Conference, and this was actually despatched on its mission of conquest, or exploration, as well as to establish a "place of arms" on the Oxus. It is somewhat startling to note the direction taken by this column, and to remember that from Bokhara to Balkh is a distance of something under two hundred miles as the crow flies, from Balkh to Cabul about the same, and from Cabul to our frontier, considerably less. Then, again, we read of a second column working its way persistently in the direction of Merve, and that its Commander has established himself with 8000 trained and war-worn veterans on the River Attrek, at the south-eastern angle of the Caspian, at the very point, in fact, which, as mentioned in our last, Baker Pasha suggested as a probable depôt for a Russian army advancing by the practicable route of Merve and Herat on the Khyber Pass. It is all very well for Mr. Laing to deprecate the warnings and advice of "amateur strategists and diplomatists with Russia on the brain!" but how can these attempted invasions be explained away? And, if they cannot, is there not a logical sequence in the after events? The Russian army retired from the Oxus, it is true, but the stores accumulated and carried forward during the advance were carefully left behind, and await the return of a still more formidable force, should the occasion arise. This, in itself, seems to have been an encouragement to the fickle and ambitious Ameer, who about the same time began to imagine that the conquerors of the Turks would prove themselves the masters of the Eastern world. A month's consideration sufficed to turn the scale, and the determination to invite the Russian envoy was received by the people of Cabul with the boisterous delight of any new-fangled idea. Finally came our demand for an interview, and at least equal consideration with that accorded to the Czar's representatives; but the Ameer's die was cast, and we found ourselves at the closed passes in the position of the foolish Virgin—too late. It has been said that the Czar's pro-consuls would find it difficult to drill the Afghans into a reliable force to pit against us. But are the Persians one whit superior as a race, or as soldiers? General Upton, U.S.A., whose work we criticised in our September issue, records it as his professional opinion, that the Shah's army is not worth its salt, and yet the Persians have been drilled by English officers to fight, and even to defeat the Russians—why then should not the tables be turned on us? Let us speak good omens, but turn to history for our guidance.

During the Napoleonic wars, it must be confessed we were

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not above double-dealing. We had a devil to deal with, and thought it prudent, if not proper, to use rather questionable devices to circumvent this political fiend, and thus while subsidising Russia to make head against Napoleon in Europe, so deep was our policy, and so much did we dread Russian ascendancy in the neighbourhood of India, we actually despatched a mission of officers to drill the Persians against the Russians. Nominally the mission was sent out against French influence in the East; but the English officers were allowed, meanwhile, during six long years, to keep their hands in by casting guns and fighting thr enemies of the Shah on the banks of the Caspian. Thus it came to pass that a Persian army, under the nominal command of Abbass, the Shah's eldest son, (but in reality led by Lieutenant-Colonel d'Arcy, R.A.), defeated the Russians signally at the battle of Sultanbolt, and took eight hundred prisoners.

Nevertheless, as before mentioned, the Persians, not many years after this, lent themselves to the counsels of Russian diplomatists, and besieged Herat, under the direct advice and guidance of Russian officers. Whereupon Lieutenant Pottinger, a Bengal Artillery officer, induced the Afghan chief to defend the place, which they did successfully, and, for a time, our influence was predominant in Afghanistan, if not in the East. Then came the campaign on behalf of the incompetent opponent of Dost Mahomet, old "Surgar and Milk," as our soldiers contemptuously styled Shah "Souja-oul-Moulk."

On the return of Lord Keane (who commanded the Expedition) to India, 5000 men were left to garrison Afghanistan under Sir Willoughby Cotton, who boasted, that under his regime, public morality was as pure as in England under the rule of "good King Alfred." "While I was there, Sir," he used to say, "you might leave a purse of sovereigns on the road, and it woudn't be touched." Sir Willoughby, in turn, relinquished the command to General Elphinstone, of disastrous memory.* Then followed Pollock's ever victorious retributive campaign, and fifteen years later, the Mutiny. Since that time till now "masterly inactivity" has prevailed until we are sick of the word. Thus we coerced, we petted, we fought for a time, but latterly we snubbed, we patronized, we neglected.

In a family war of precedence, we took no trouble to acknowledge the present rightful successor to the throne, but absolutely gave an indifferent consent to the pretensions of his brother, a second claimant. Even so lately as 1872, when we had an opportunity of reciprocating kindly sentiments on the part of Sheer Ali, we deigned not to notice his barbarian sympathy. On the occasion of Lord Mayo's assassination, Sheer Ali des-

* We all know the history of that sad retreat of the gallant 44th Regiment, when all was lost except honour, and from which a pitiful few returned to tell the tale of Afghan treachery and remorseless cruelty.

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patched the following extremely remarkable, because spontaneous, effusion of his "anguished heart."

"Be it known to your friendly heart that I have been shocked to hear the terrible and mournful tidings of the death of the Viceroy and Governor-General of India.

"By this terrible and unforeseen stroke my heart has been overwhelmed with grief and anguish, for it can scarce occur again in days so out of joint as these that the world will see another so universally beloved and esteemed for his many high and excellent qualities as him who is now in the spirit land.

"All great and wise men have ever regarded this transitory world as a resting-place for a single night, or as an overflowing and changing stream, and have never ceased to remind their fellows that they must pass beyond it and leave all behind them. It is, therefore, incumbent on men not to fix their affections on perishable things during the course of their short lives, which are, as it were, a loan to them from above.

"Naught remains to the friends and survivors of him who is gone from among us but patience and resignation.

"The unvarying friendship and kindness displayed towards me by him who is now no more had induced me to determine, if the affairs of Afghanistan at the time permitted the step, to accompany his Excellency on his return to England, so that I might obtain the gratification of a personal interview with Her Majesty the Queen, and derive pleasure from travelling in the countries of Europe. Before the eternally predestined decrees, however, men must bow in silence.

"A crooked and perverse fate always interferes to prevent the successful attainment by any human being of his most cherished desires. What more can be said or written to express my grief and sorrow?

"It is my earnest wish that your Excellency, wherever you may be, will in future communicate to me accounts of your health, and inform me of your name and titles, that I may be enabled to address my letters correctly."

Lastly, Sir Lewis Pelly's Mission, two years ago, capped the climax of our political blunderings, and piled up the agony of the Ameer's contemptuous indignation. Hence it has happened that Russian influence creeping on like the tortoise has outstripped the hare. The fabric run up hastily and without regard to stability has tumbled in upon our heads. The glacis to our fortress of India, always held by doubtful friends, threatens to fall into the hands of our most persistent and dangerous rivals.

Although we have, in our remarks last month, spoken of the Will of Peter the Great as a mythical testament, it will be well to bear the terms of it in mind throughout any study of the Central Asian question. Two or three of its clauses are, at all events, worthy of constant recollection, for they are being closely borne

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out by his legatees; and whether or no, the grand aspirations involved in the scheme to render Russia the dominant power of the earth, bespeak jealous respect if not keen admiration for their audacity. They are as follows:

"1. To keep Russia in a state of continual war ..... To choose the most favourable moment for attack, to follow up peace by war and war by peace in the interest, aggrandisement and growing prosperity of Russia.

"9. To approach as near as possible to Constantinople and India; whoever governs there will be the true sovereign of the world. Consequently, excite continual wars, not only in Turkey, but in Persia. Establish dockyards on the Black Sea, seize upon little pieces near there; as well as on the Baltic, which is doubly necessary for the attainment of our project. And in the decadence of Persia, penetrate as far as the Persian Gulf, reestablish, if it be possible, the ancient commerce with the Levant, advance as far as India, which is the depôt of the world.

"11. To interest the House of Austria in the chasing of the Turk out of Europe, to neutralize her jealousies at the moment of the conquest of Constantinople, either by exciting her to war with the Great Powers of Europe, or by giving her a portion of the conquest which one will retake from her at a later period.

"13. Sweden being dismembered, Persia subjugated, Poland crushed, Turkey conquered, our army reunited, the Black Sea and Baltic guarded by our ships, we must then propose separately and very secretly: first, to the Court of Versailles, then to that of Vienna, to share with them the Empire of the Universe. If one of the two accept, which is nearly certain, by flattering her ambition and *amour propre*, to make use of her for crushing the the other. Finally, to annihilate in her turn the one which remains by commencing a struggle which cannot be perilous, Russia possessing already all the Eastern and greater portion of Europe."

Such are Peter's instructions for the subjugation of Europe, and if we substitute names and actual events, a very fair conception of the plans of the Czar's Government may be arrived at. Austria has, indeed, been "interested," but what is the result so far? Her supposed formidable army held in check by a mere handful of insurgents, while internal commotion divides her counsels and nullifies her action. Then what is the condition of Europe? France is dignified and prudent, but unable to interfere. Italy, brave at the Congress, has subsided into a watchful quietude. Greece remains in a chronic state of upish agitation, if not revolt. Its neighbouring provinces are actually in rebellion. Roumelia, Bulgaria, Roumania, Servia and Montenegro hesitate to accept the behests of the Congress, while Turkey, in delaying to resign Podgoritza, seems to have offered the very pretext that Russia requires to drive her coach and four through

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the international Treaty of Berlin. There is, indeed, one thing else needed for present safety in accomplishing her intentions, and that is an ally, either encouragingly active, or obligingly impassive, and this Russia may be said to possess in Bismarck's Mephistoletic nation. And notwithstanding the Premier's late scornful repudiation of the power, much more the accredited agency of the Russian press, and of Russian so-called subalterns, —papers, which under so despotic a Government, and men of such distinction in the State, that it may be said they can be only capable of inspired utterances—it cannot be overlooked nor disputed that they each and all pretend, and even assert, that as no coercive clauses were inserted in the Treaty, evasion of its terms cannot be regarded as an infringement, but a necessity of the situation. The fact of the sudden halting of the Russian army within Turkish lines could not be explained away in the Guildhall speech, nor in fact do the Russians take pains to deny their intentions of remaining until certain definitive clauses of their own Treaty of San Stefano, not annulled by the Congress of Berlin, are satisfactorily complied with.

There is, however, one point in the Premier's admirable oration to which we now desire to draw marked attention; namely, the possibility of an advance being made along the Euphrates Valley route through Persia to south-western India. The question of any invasion is one of communications. Even in ancient days when the soldier carried his food and arms in person—when unsatisfactory Commissariat arrangements were unknown, and no Ordnance Department existed. When bows and arrows represented the Martini-Henry or the Gatling, and extemporized battering rams formed a substitute for guns of position, or electrically-fired dinamite mines at a siege—even then we say, the connection between the base of supplies and the adventurous invading host was maintained with scrupulous tenacity and prudent military forethought. A study of Alexander's invasion of India would, in fact, form a fitting preparation for a due appreciation of the artful advances and careful colonization of the various strategic outposts on the long line of communication between St. Petersburgh and the advance guard of the army of Asia. If our readers will turn to any good map of the country lying south of the Black and Caspian Seas, they will note what is well known to all military students, that the physical geography of these regions present almost insuperable obstacles to military operations.

"The great mountain system," says Colonel Carr, a close observer of Russia's Asiatic policy, "extending in almost unbroken continuity from Iskanderoon on the Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf, has, perhaps, derived its chief interest in modern times from its bounding to the north the rich plains of Mesopotamia, and from its slopes being drained by, and supplying, the sources of that 'great river, the River Euphrates.' It seems now

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destined within the lifetime of the present generation to attract the notice both of statesmen and of the soldier from its position between the tide of Russian advance, and the waning power of Turkey."

About midway between the Black Sea and the Euphrates embosomed in the Kurdistan mountains lies Lake Van. Erzeroum, which we are told will shortly "form the scene of the most extensive fortifications in Asia Minor," is situate about sixty miles to the north of it. All this country, except the actual basin of Lake Van, was overrun by the Russian General Paskiewitch in 1829, and it became the arena of many an encounter during the late war.

Now one of the first considerations in maintaining communications through difficult, or barren, countries, is the occupation of not merely points of vantage, but granaries and agricultural districts; and Van is one of the most favoured oases in Asia, it is, in fact, "the reputed cradle of the human race, and unrivalled in fertility of soil and salubrity of climate by any part of the world." If, therefore, Erzeroum had been yielded to Russia, a sad political and strategical blunder would have been committed; for, of course, the fortress of Erzeroum will now command the practicable routes through Van to Persia. The main road leads through the populous city of Mush, past the shores of Lake Van to Bitlis, and is the very one crossed by Xenophon's 10,000 Greeks in their masterly retreat from Arbela to Trebizond on the Black Sea. Below Bitlis, three roads diverge to cross the mountain, two of them, in close proximity, reach an altitude of five thousand feet and the third, more to the west, passes in some places through solid rock instead of being carried over such precipitous cliffs as lie in its course, finally reaching Til on the Tigris. But there are no less than from twenty-five to thirty subsidiary lines of communication through the defiles of this intricate country, which, moreover, supports innumerable sheep (forty millions some say), and, therefore, it cannot be said to be either impassable for an invading army, or incapable of producing supplies to sustain one. "History would seem to teach us," says Colonel Carr, "that the true value of an extensive mountain range as a barrier to invasion rests chiefly on the measures which the defenders can adopt to strengthen it by their own military resources, or by the active co-operation of the inhabitants."

Lord Beaconsfield's stroke of policy has, however, checked Russian advance on this side, if not entirely nullified it, by the occupation of Cyprus on one flank, while the Turks hold Erzeroum on the other. To appreciate this fact, we may go on to quote the conclusions formed by this Essayist only a few months before Cyprus was thought of as a "place of arms."

"It is obvious," says Colonel Carr, "that for many years after reaching the frontier indicated, it would neither be in the power

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of Russia to attempt a descent on the plain of Tigris; but it would be only in accordance with her practice in Asia to endeavour, under pretext of encouraging trade, to improve the tracks on her side of the passes, and to send forward agents to establish friendly intercourse with, and eventually a protectorate over her neighbours on the southern side. Once in possession of intermediate places (such as Diarbekr, Mosul and Bagdad), Russia might wait her leisure to improve the roads, and to profit by the necessities of Turkey before venturing on more important acquisitions"—*Mutato nomine*—and the same remarks are applicable to Afghanistan. The same wily progress is observable in securing depôts on the borders of that country, while political missions undermine the commonwealth by stirring up animosities, jealousies and dissensions among the inhabitants, while goading the fickle Government into bitter and active hostility against ourselves. Let us hope, however, that the cunning wisdom of his father has descended, in large measure, on Shere Ali to counteract these evil, and, for him, ruinous counsellings, and indeed to judge from the letter we have quoted, it would seem he is not averse from kindly feelings towards us, although, for the nonce, his reason has been shaken to its depths by conflicting emotions. An anecdote of some relevancy, as narrated by Colonel Malleson, C.S.I., may here be given, not merely to exhibit the crafty prescience of such semi-savages, but to dispel the illusion created by Shere Ali's pretence that he could not be answerable for the lives of political residents, to be stationed, as suggested by Sir Bartle Frere, at Kandahar, Herat and even Cabul. During the Indian Mutiny three British officers were at Kandahar on a political mission. Haidar Khan, then Governor of that place, sent word to his father, Dost Mahomed, that news had come from India that all the English there had been murdered, and added, "had I not better cut the throats of these three?" Dost Mahomed replied: "It is useless; I know these English well. It may be true that all those in India have been murdered, but they will come in thousands from beyond the sea, and reconquer the country. Better leave these three alone."

But to return to the consideration of the practicability of a Russian invasion of India by the valleys of the Tigris and Euphrates, let us recal the programme drawn up by General Duhamel at the time of the Crimean War, and which was submitted to the Czar for approval.

The details were prefaced by the observation, that in accordance with historical tradition, all the conquerors of India, excepting ourselves, came from Central Asia and Persia. That the roads chosen by Alexander the Great for the purpose were still available, and that all these routes converged upon Afghanistan. Five lines of march to Cabul were then enumerated. 1. From Orenburg by Merve and Bokhara. 2. From Orsk, by

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Aralsk and the Bamian Pass. 3. From Orsk by Tashkend and Khokand. 4. From Astrakhan by sea to Astrabad, and thence by Meshed, Herat and Kandahar. 5. From Julfna via Tabris, Teheran, Meshed and Kandahar.

Now, as pointed out by Sir F. Goldsmid, all the roads indicate that "the Russian project does not ignore entry into India, other than by the Khibar and Bolan Passes;" while there is little doubt, but that other invaders from Alexander to Mahmud of Ghazni, and again from the ninth century downwards did make use of alternative routes in entering, or leaving India. The above remark was made by this distinguished officer and Eastern traveller, in a Lecture delivered at the Royal United Service Institution previous to our acquisition of Cyprus. He was advocating certain communications with India under possible contingencies, which may now, indeed, be said to have developed into certainties. He would anticipate the designs of Russia as he actually did the political schemes of Government, and what does he say? "Let us suppose ourselves at some particular spot in the Mediterranean always available, and so situated as to place us within easy reach of the Syrian coast, or a convenient starting point for a railway to the Persian Gulf. As an island wears an independant look, we may choose Cyprus. The geographical position of Cyprus would make it a fitting guardian of Upper Syria and almost of Palestine, if the Island were under enlightened government." Starting from Tripoli then, his proposed railway would strike the Euphrates beyond Palmyra, a city which Parliamentary Report records enthusiastically, "is in the first overland route which was made to the Euphrates; it is as old as the days of David and Solomon," and running along the river-bank the terminus would be established at Grain or Kuwait on the Persian Gulf. A second line of railway would also run from Jaslik at the mouth of the Gulf to Kurachee, whence we have a line to the Bolan Pass, Moultan, and Lahore. The distances and length of time occupied by communication with India as proposed would be:

Tripoli to Kuwait . . .	850	miles in	36	hours.
Kuwait to Jaslik (by steamer) . .	600	"	60	"
Jaslik to Kurachee . . .	700	"	30	"

or say a week, inclusive of unavoidable delays. Is it too much to prophecy that this Euphrates Valley railway will within our lifetime be a *fait accompli*, notwithstanding the difficulties, financial and physical that stand in its way, for it approves itself to common sense as the one and only means of checkmating Russia's Asiatic policy of reckless annexation and insatiable ambition?

And now let us turn briefly to a phase of the actual condition of affairs on our north-west frontier to which we feel bound to advert. It has been decided to use an overwhelming

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force of artillery in this campaign, so many as six guns per 1000 men—an extraordinary proportion. In this arrangement we fancy we trace the preponderating influence of certain "infallible gunners." For, surely, if ever our Gatling mitrailleurs are to be used, now is the fitting opportunity. It is not when an elongated column of guns and limbers, or a convoy of provisions and stores, toiling laboriously through an intricate defile, find themselves snddenly exposed to a shower of missiles from borrowed Russian Gatlings, that the question of the introduction of these weapons into the equipment of his expeditionary force ought to be entertained by Sir F. Haines.* The mobility and destructive powers of Gatlings of light calibre, capable on occasion of firing from 600 to 1000 rounds a minute, render them obviously invaluable for the work in hand to unprejudiced military critics. As suggested by Lieutenant Trotter, Royal Horse Artillery, in this year's gold medal Prize Essay, there is little doubt but that the retaining power and independence of horse artillery on a campaign wonld be vastly increasedby the addition of one or two Gatlings to each battery. Under such circumstances and more particularly in the ensuing guerilla-like warfare amid the intricate fastnesses of Afghanistnn, a smart artillery officer would quickly discover a solution to the problem propounded four years ago at the Royal United Service Institution, by Major Rogers, Staff Officer of Pensioners, Chester, namely, "The Gatling gun; its place in tactics?" Since then vast improvement have been made in the construction of the piece, and in the ammunition for its use. We have lately examined a specimen cartridge, which fired at the rate of 800 rounds a minute would, to say the least, create confusion in the serried ranks of even a Xerxes host; within the case (which is of ·45 calibre) are three bullets and these scatter from the very muzzles of the piece as they fly in a continuous flow from the rapidly revolving barrels; that is from 1,200 to 3,000 leaden hail fill the space in front of the gun every minute of its manipulation.† Within the last month or two there has been been issued by authority from the Govenument printing office at Washington, a full description of Gatling guns (calibre ·45) with rules and regulations for their inspection, and giving an analysis of the guns in the service of the United States (269 in all) their interchangeability, carriages, tripods and harness. In addition to this, diagrams and plates explain the internal mechanism of

* Mention of the Commander-in-Chief reminds us to advise those of our readers who are interested in his character and career to turn to Kinglake's glowing pages, 364 to 370, for a description of Haines' "tenacious defence of the Barrier" at Inkerman.

† At a recent trial of this multiple cartridge at Sandyhook, U.S. 10,000 were fired from a ·45 calibre Gatling, at targets placed 200 and 300 yards off, with excellent results. It may also be mentioned that a vertical as well as a lateral oscillator with a sweep of 12° and a vertical motion of 5° has now been fitted to the gun, thus enabling it to sweep the ditch of a fortress with astounding effect.

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every part and illustrate the method of harnessing the horses and mounting the Gatling on the specially constructed cavalry cart for use in hill warfare against the frontier Indians. Contrast this manual with the couple of pages inserted in our artillery one on the subject of Gatlings, and it will be at once seen that an unwarrantable want of interest in these weapons of the future is manifested by our Ordnance Department. But no Gatling manual can be complete without practical tactics, without a synopsis so speak, taken under ocular demonstration, of their effectiveness against an enemy under all and every circumstances, and this want it is now in our power to supply. Perhaps sending out Major Noble, Royal Artillery, on special service has something to do with the idea of utilizing so excellent an opportunity. Major Noble, as one of the jurors on mitrailleurs at the Philadelphia Exhibition, gave the palm to the Gatling gun as *facile princeps*. This verdict has been sustained and endorsed by the judgment of Paris, the Gatling gun having been awarded the gold medal there as superior to all. In Natal, as well as in Afghanistan, we can ill afford to sacrifice our small but perfect Army. Our expensivly trained soldiers are individually worth more than the manufacturer's price for a Gatling gun. Then why do we hesitate to substitute mechanical weapons for brave but costly men, or at least why cannot we supplement our comparatively insignificant force by a multiple gun which represents numerically a quadruped army?

From this digression let us, in conclusion, make a few comments on the proposed "scientific boundary," which is intended to fix a great gulf between the rich man in India and the Muscovite Lazarus beyond the Hindu Koosh, which, however, is a rather strained and inverted metaphor.

So long ago as 1869 the late Lord Clarendon entered into a lengthy official correspondence with the Government of St. Petersbourg on the subject of a proposed line of demarcation or intermediary zone to the north of Afghanistan. The course of Russian conquest advancing in a south-easterly direction to Bokhara, Samarcand and Karshi rendered it expedient that some line should be drawn, and to the surprise of our Minister, the Russian Cabinet expressed its readiness to accept an Afghan frontier. But the negotiations that ensued, fell through unaccountably until 1872, when Lord Granville reopened the correspondence, and although there was much dispute about the provinces of Wakhan and Badakshan being included within the intermediary zone, the Czar's Government at length consented to recognize the limits of the Ameer's territories "in complete accord with the wishes of Shere Ali and of the British Government." Thus we, in point of fact, gave Russia direct encouragement to advance up to that line, and she has not been slow to take advantage of it. The commencement of the present trouble, dates, as defined by Lord Cranbrook,

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from 1873, when we backed out of giving the Ameer an assurance of support against further aggression. Hence arises the necessity for a final and strategic line of defence against encroachment, now only to be obtained by a campaign against our quondam ally. While we conclude this retrospect our columns tramp forward irresistably to secure the basis of a scientific frontier. Before these words are in print the Quita force will no doubt have made a dash at Kandahar, and the Khyber Pass will be in our hands. Will we be content with this success or proceed to capture the capital? Whether or no, it is clear to military men that the permanent occupation of Quita (pronounced Qwetta) and some point beyond the Khyber, such as Jellalabad, will form part of this scheme of defence, and in such event we would with our last breath express the hope that in the armament of these frontier forts, the authorities will not lose sight of the value and special aptitudes of Gatling guns.

SHOULD CAVALRY HORSES BE SHOD?

That nature never meant horses to have circles of iron fastened to their hoofs by nails of metal, is a fact willingly recognised by all, and if the feet of horses can only be subjected to a system of treatment which would enable them to do without shoes altogether, the gain to the animals themselves, to humanity at large, and to the pockets of horse owners would be simply incalculable. Few horses live half their days, and when it is taken into consideration that the greater portion of their shortened existence is but a period of pain and misery through bad shoeing, any plan which promised to lessen their pains, and to lengthen their lives, ought certainly to meet with encouragement from every one, who has the welfare of man's best friend, the horse, at heart.

It is not desirable in the limits of this paper to discuss the question of the antiquity of horse-shoes. In fact it is immaterial whether they have been in use for four or for fourteen centuries, so long as the truth that they are injurious is conceded. No one thinks of asserting that horses like to be shod, or that shoeing prevents corns, thrush, ringbone, sandcracks, or any other of the diseases the farrier might be credited with. The question now before both military men and civilians is, can horses be worked without being shod? We believe that in the majority of cases the reply should be in the affirmative. Horse-shoeing at best, is but a clumsy performance; at its worst it is a cruel one. There is little doubt but shoeing impairs not only the shape but the sensitiveness of the horse's hoof, and when the latter is injured, the liability to stumble must increase. That however is but a trifle, when the greater injuries inflicted by shoeing comes to be considered, and therefore before going further into the subject we will examine the structure

of the horse's foot, in order to arrive if possible towards some decision of this momentous question. The supporters of shoeing, and of non-shoeing, should each however bear in mind that a few failures on either side will not satisfy their opponents of the fallacy of their respective systems, for if it is found in practice that among one hundred unshod horses there is less lameness than among the same number of shod animals, then the new system should be adopted, or *vice-versa*. It is not a question whether going unshod will prove injurious to some horses, and being shod hurtful to others, the question is simply *which system is most injurious to the horse?*

"The hoof of a horse," says Mr Freeman, "is in its nature similar to the nails of the human body, each proceeding from the cutis or true skin. Where the true skin begins to produce it, the hoof is extremely soft, and white, becoming harder and thicker towards the extremities. The outward part, and the hardest, is called the crust or wall; the front is the toe, and the side is the quarters. But the hoof though solid is of a fibrous texture. The fibres are closely united, and their direction lies from the upper part which is called the coronet downwards. In the interior part of the hoof these fibres become a laminated substance, following the same direction, and placed in such a manner as to be peculiarly subservient to the elasticity of the hoof.

"The nail of the human body, like the hoof, is soft and white at the root, and gets harder and thicker the further it grows. Strongest in the middle, it is thinner and softer at the sides, in consequence of which the middle of the nail will stand the severest strain. The hoof of the forefoot of the horse is similarly constructed, and it is this special shape, which produces an elasticity, extending from the quarters of the toe, each time the horse puts its forefeet on the ground. When a horse is moving at speed, or drawing a great weight, the point of the toe acts as a fulcrum, in its endeavour to catch hold of the ground. The toe of the forefoot is therefore naturally the hardest part, in order that it may be best able to resist the violent concussions to which it is continually subject, from encountering hard and uneven substances.

"From the coronet downwards, the walls, (or crusts), diminish in height as they come to the heels; when they fold back as a covering to the lower posterior extremities of the cartilages of the foot bone, terminating nearly in a point when they have formed a complete covering. These are termed the bars or binders, enclosing the extremities of the cartilages in the same way as the quarters cover the heels, and equally admit of expansion or contraction, so that when a horse is in full gallop there is a continued alteration of these opposite actions. Therefore when his feet strike the ground the elasticity of the bars assists the bones in the opening or expansion of the heels, which are again immediately contracted by the quarters, the moment the feet leave the ground.

"As the extremities of the fingers of the human hand, the

organs of touch, the skin which covers them is extremely sensible, and is only covered by a thin cuticle; but the foot of a horse, being adapted to bear his weight and exertions, as well as to be susceptible of feeling, requires protection, so that its sensibility may not be injured. It has therefore a cuticular covering of a thick nature, being that portion of the hoof called the sole.

"This, the sole, is firmly attached to the very sensitive membranes which cover the under surface of the footbone, while it is connected to the walls on either side, at the extreme edges of the bone; where the skin is most sensible, and of a looser texture than the rest of the hoof. As the sole scales off and renews itself perpetually, it easily and speedily recovers from any injury it may receive.

"The coronet (which as before explained is the softest part of hoof) returns from the heels inwards and forwards like a dart, and extending itself over the skin of the fleshy sole, constitutes its last outward covering, and in this part takes the name of the frog The frog is enabled to yield to the expansion of the hoof, by having a long tudinal cleft or opening in the middle, which expands and contracts itself upon violent exertions, when it is permitted to touch the ground. It also yields to the binders in the expansion of the heels, and to the bones in their play upon one another. Though the frog is thicker than the parts from which it proceeds, it is less compact in its texture. Exterior moisture though beneficial, does not penetrate into it, in the least, nor does it receive any oil from the fatty cushion which lies between it and the flexor tendon."

From the foregoing it will be easily understood that the interior parts of the horse's feet—though highly sensitive themselves—become by the gradual procress of development, the horn-box, known as the hoof, and that this growth continues during the animal's life, while the rapidity or otherwise of this growth is determined to a considerable extent by the work it is called upon to perform. It is only reasonable therefore to suppose that a horse which was worked without shoes would require to grow a larger supply of horn, than one whose hoofs were protected from "fair wear and tear" by iron shoes; and that nature would in this respect prove more generous to the unshod than to the shod animals. Whoever has read Gordon Cumming's African exploits will remember how nature came to his assistance in the hour of need. His last pair of shoes had fallen to pieces, and far from human habitations and in fact from human kind, he had no other resource than to go barefoot. For the first few days he found progression on the new plan a most painful, as well as a slow method of hunting, but soon after the soles of his feet not only got hard and firm, but a thick skin formed covering the exposed parts, so that he was able to run over the sharpest flints and the most jagged rocks, without feeling the least pain. In fact, when he had the opportunity of buying shoes, he refused to avail himself of it, finding that having become accustomed to go barefooted, he could both run faster, and walk

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farther, and generally undergo greater fatigue than when he wore the leather encumbrances.

Now this is very significant testimony, for if nature, on a pinch, furnishes a thick skin to the sole of the human foot, at a week's notice when deprived of its leather encumbrance, why should she not be equally kind to the hoof of the horse, when the iron defence has been removed from it. One hundred and twenty years ago. Osmer, (who if we except La Fosse, was the greatest authority of his day on horse-shoeing) wrote, "I believe there are many horses who might travel their whole lifetime unshod, on any road, if their hoofs were rasped round and short at the toe; because all feet exposed to hard objects become thereby more obdurate, if the soul be never pared. And some by their particular form, depth and strength are enabled to resist them quite, and to support the weight without breaking, and here a very little reflection will teach us whence the custom arose in shoeing horses in one part of the world and not in another. In Asia there is no such custom as that of shoeing horses at all, because the feet acquire a very obdurate and firm texture from the dryness of the climate and the soil, and do really want no defence." He goes on to say that every rider carries a rasp to shorten when necessary his horse's foot at the toe in order to prevent the horn from splitting, which it would be likely to do, if the crust become too long. He argues, and we think with much reason on his side, that shoes were introduced merely as a protection to horses that had naturally weak feet from being brought up on wet or marshy land, and in some countries the practice spread until as in England all kinds of feet, both weak and strong ones, were condemned as useless and nailed on shields of iron substituted. "Our ancestors, the original shoers," says Mr. Osmer, "proposed nothing more I dare say, in their first efforts, than to preserve the crust from breaking away, and thought themselves lucky they had skill enough to do so, the moderns also are wisely content with this in the racing way."

"But in process of time," he continues, "the fertility of invention, and the vanity of mankind, have produced a variety of methods, almost all of which are productive of lameness; and I am thoroughly convinced, from observation and experience, that nineteen lame horses of every twenty in this kingdom are lame of the artist." To prove that shoeing is chiefly the cause of "founder" and other diseases on a horse, he simply asks that the suffering animal be unshod, the crust lowered as much as possible all round, and then turn him out to grass barefooted, when he will become sound in course of time, if the exterior parts of the foot are not diseased." Now "the true cause of this is that the foot being unconfined by a shoe, the weight of the horse expands it, while the crust and the structure of the coronary ring is relaxed by the dews and moisture, and the compression on the parts is removed."*

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* "A Treatise on the Diseases and Lameness of Horses," by W. Osmer. London, 1766.

Since Osmer published his book, hundreds of different kinds of horse-shoes have been introduced to the public, each and all being avowedly improvements upon their predecessors. The latest idea in the form of a horse-shoe is that of Dr. Kirseger, a German, who has we believe within the last few weeks patented a horse shoe which can be taken off and put on with great ease and simplicity. We have seen years ago specimens of horse-shoes for which a similar excellence has been claimed, but they were all cumbrous unserviceable affairs. Dr. Kirseger's horse-shoe, has however the merit of being light, as well as being easily fixed or removed from the horse's foot, so the whole thing rests now upon the cost of the article, and whether it will stand hard work. The latter is the chief point, and can only be proved by such a practical test as having some twenty omnibus horses shod with the removeable shoe.

We however hope that the question will be decided in a more practical way, by doing without horse-shoes altogether. Of late the columns of the *Times* and other journals have been open for the discussion of this important subject, and the result has been altogether of a most gratifying nature. Mr. Ransom, a gentleman whose considerable experience in Brazil as a road-maker entitles him to every respect, asserts that horses can do any work required of them, better when unshod, than when shod, and after a most patient and painstaking perusal of all the correspondence that has appeared, we cannot but think that Mr. Ransom's arguments, have not been refuted by Mr. Fleming or any other of his opponents. Upon one point all Mr. Ransom's rivals agree, which is, that the present system of heavy-shoeing is thoroughly bad, and should not be tolerated. Even the author of "The Book of the Horse"—when asserting that horse-shoes are a necessary evil, one that entails much suffering upon the animals shod—endeavours to get out of the difficulty arising from the the latter part of his admission by calling attention to the corns and bunions which leather shoes produce in the human feet. As "two blacks will not make a white," this is only begging the question, and Mr. Sydney is far more to the purpose when he says, "Shoe as little as possible," and would we think have been still more so, had he said, "Do not shoe your horses at all."

The discussion brought out the following facts:

1st.—Officers who served in the army in India during the Mutiny state that they rode horses the whole time without any shoes at all, not even on their forefeet, and further admit their horses never went better.

2nd.—A Major-general (*Times* June 29, 1878) relates that while in command of a half battery of artillery in Natal, only a few of his horses were shod in front, and none had shoes on their hind feet. That he was in the habit of travelling the guns over very rough ground, in fact over precipitous and at times very slippery

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roads, and that he was satisfied they did their work as well, and with greater comfort to themselves, not to mention economy, than if they had been shod. His own horses, with one exception, were never shod, while this one, was only shod in front.

3rd.—Mr. Ransom, when he first went to Brazil, was shocked and surprised to find horses unshod, and it took him some time to get over his old prejudice in favour of shoeing these animals. He frankly tells us that at first he thought the practice of working horses without shoes, "was cruel in the extreme," and it was not until having bought some horses to make a long journey inland with, and wanting them shod, that his conviction of the efficiency of shoeing, was shaken by the veterinary surgeon informing him that if he wished to reach his destination, all right, he would let the horses remain unshod. This advice, and from such a source, staggered him, but he found the truth and value of it, as he brought back all the horses, many weeks afterwards quite sound, "although the work had been very hard." The roads in Brazil it appears are partly macadmized, and that over these parts Mr. Ransom says, he "used to ride horses at full gallop. Unshod horses, with live hoofs, are not so much afraid of macadamised roads, as those who have to receive the shock through the double medium of iron and split-up-horn. They have an elastic cushion in the frog which stands them in better stead."

"My experience," he continues, "is long and varied, yet I know of no road on which an unshod horse will not leave a shod one behind, always supposing that his hoofs have had the short time necessary to grow."

4th.—Another gentleman writes of having driven and ridden his horses thirty, forty, and fifty miles a day on the hardest and softest roads, and they never went lame, nor did they slip or trip, in frosty weather, or in snow. Yet their unshod feet "grew an inch deeper of horn, than is the case with the hoof of a shod horse," and all that was necessary to keep their hoofs strong and healthy, was constant work.

This is only a portion, and a small portion of the important evidence which has appeared on the subject. We say important, because neither Mr. Ransom or the others have any reason, save in the interest of humanity, in ventilating the question. On the other hand, we cannot expect veterinary surgeons to advocate that horses should not be shod. We might as well expect doctors to hail with joy the introduction of a medicine which would not only cure but prevent disease. Veterinary surgeons, like people in trade, have to live by their profession or calling; and if the diseases which horses suffer, through shoeing, were to disappear, the veterinary surgeon's bills for attendance, &c., would be woefully curtailed. These remarks do not however apply to gentlemen connected with the Army veterinary department; and we may confidently expect that a movement like this based upon the highest principles of

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humanity will not only be met in a non-combative spirit but receive their most cordial support.

Fortunately in the cavalry branch of our British Army the experiment can be put to the test with perfect safety, as the remounts when they join a regiment have never had their feet encircled by iron bonds. They now reach their destination by rail, but thirty years ago they were driven long distances over the worst kind of roads without being injured. We remember seeing in 1845 twenty four unshod young horses join a cavalry regiment at Newbridge, after travelling upwards of a hundred miles in four days through Ireland, and not one of them was lame; and as they had doubtless been transferred suddenly from pasture land to the hard road, the test they were put to was a sufficiently severe one.

Now cavalry horses employed at riding school work certainly cannot require shoes; it being well known in the Service that horses ridden by recruits to school would not wear out a set of shoes in a twelvemonth. Again the horses of cavalry corps stationed at Aldershot or the Curragh might with all safety be left without shoes during their stay in these camps. This would give time for the horn to grow and harden, so that when each regiment received the route to march to another station, the horse's feet would be in the best condition for making the trial, as to whether the non-shoeing principle was correct or otherwise.

As we have remarked, it can be nothing to the advantage of Army veterinary surgeons to have horses shod; while, on the contrary, the absence of shoeing and of shoeing smiths would be beneficial, as the cases of lameness and other afflictions arising from farriery would not exist. The gain of course would not end at this. In the first place sixteen more men per corps would be available for duty, and in the second the country would save all the expense paid in extra pay, &c., to sergeants-farrier and shoeing-smiths in the Service. The greatest gain however would be in the lengthened life the cavalry horse would now enjoy, as well as in its increased value in warfare, for a trooper, whose natural feet would stand the wear and tear incidental to a campaign, would be worth any other two horses whose utility ran the risk of being imperilled by the want of shoeing, or even through casting a shoe.

The value of attrition in promoting the growth of horn is well known, and therefore it is not too much to expect that just as the feet of a goat becomes harder and more healthy when among its native Welsh mountains, than when it plays in green fields, the feet of a horse when rode or driven over hard roads will proportionately improve. The domestic cat keeps her talons sharp and growing by daily embedding them in wood, and were she not to do so, we have no hesitation in saying they would soon to a great extent become useless to her as weapons of offence. This exercise is necessary for the production of new horn in her claws, and just as a hedgehog, rabbit, or a badger was never known to take injury

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from its habits of burrowing, so never has a cat known to become a bad mouser through scratching wood too much. The attrition, so useful and so healthy in the cases referred to, could surely not be injurious in other animals, especially horses, whose hoofs are said to have originally been claws.

It should however be kept in mind that any sudden change of treatment, in the matter of non-shoeing would not be immediately beneficial to a horse. The change must be a gradual process if it is to be effectual; although that process is an exceedingly simple one. We refer to horses that have been previously shod; horses that have never been subjected to the treatment will naturally be even more easily dealt with. When the shoes have been taken off, the sharp edge of the hoof will next have to be seen to, as from its dry and brittle condition, it would soon splinter, even by the horse standing in his stall. This sharp edge must be rounded off—and especially at the toe—with a rasp or rough file, and the horse, if possible, turned out to grass for a week. If grassing cannot be managed, let the horse be exercised gently over a good road twice daily for an hour at a time, care being taken to examine his feet whenever he returns to the stable. If the horn is particularly dry, a swab tied round each hoof and kept wet will prove of use, as it will alike toughen and assist the growth of the horn. Every day the animal is treated in this manner will be marked by improvement, and at the expiration of the week the horse may be safely put to light work. Of course, much will naturally depend upon the condition of the feet at the time the shoes are taken off, and consequently some horses will be fitter for work in three days than others will be in seven. In most cases no really sound improvement will take place until the horn as far as the nailholes has disappeared from the natural growth of the hoof, but as the increase in an unshod horse's hoof will be much more rapid than in one that is shod, the needful new horn will be produced in one half the time it previously would have taken to grow When this stage has been arrived at, we may safely assert that all danger is passed, for the fresh sound horn will be no more liable to chip or split, than would the hoof of a goat or of a deer. It will however still be advisable to round off the horn at the edge of the hoofs, should the work the horse be doing, not have taken this sharpness off. It will likewise be advisable for the rider to carry in a small pocket, attached to the saddle, a little rasp, in order to remove at once any raw edge or fracture that might accidentally arise on the road. This applies also to drivers, who will have less difficulty in carrying the tool. So long as the work is light at first, the hardness of the road will not be detrimental to the experiment.

The next thing of importance connected with the non-shoeing of horses is that, while in the stable during the day, they must not stand upon straw, or anything softer than the horn-boxes which encase the sensitive parts of their feet. Whatever has a tendency

to heat the horn is hurtful, as with horses feet, as it leads to contraction, the most fruitful source of ailments connected with horse's feet, as from it corns, thrush, grease, and other diseases may be said to spring. In stone paved stalls, and with regular exercise over hard roads, a horse's hoofs, we feel convinced, will soon become as strong and as hard as iron. We wish also to remind our readers that the shoes ought not to be removed until the proper time for shoeing has come round, as by then there will be formed a greater protection of horn than would be if the removal took place shortly after the horse had been shod.

On this subject the "Lancet" has given an emphatic and decided opinion, in the following words: "As a matter of physiological fitness, nothing more indefensible than the use of shoes can be imagined. Not only is the mode of attaching them by nails injurious to the hoofs, it is the probable, if not evident, cause of many affections of the foot and leg, which impair the usefulness and must affect the comfort of the animal."

We have observed how important a question and how easy a one to solve is this of non-shoeing by our cavalry, and it is to be hoped that the colonel of some horse regiment stationed at Aldershot may be ordered by the Duke of Cambridge to test the system, and report upon it after a six month's trial, the supporters of both systems having full liberty to inspect the progress of the experiment. The question is one which cannot be allowed to remain unsettled, and it is to be hoped a speedy solution will be attempted by that portion of the Service it most affects, and where it can be most economically and thoroughly be tested; namely—the Cavalry.

THE WRECK REGISTER.

At this period of the year—when storms, shipwrecks, and happily Lifeboat services are of daily occurrence, we may opportunely make some remarks on the Wreck Register and Chart for the year ending June 1877 which has recently been published—abundant materials for our remarks are furnished as usual, by the official return on this subject presented annually to Parliament by the Board of Trade—which Department has, as is well known, charge of matters connected with our mercantile marine. A few facts here relating to that great Service may be both interesting and instructive. It appears, from parliamentary returns that the number of British Vessels which entered inwards and cleared outwards during the past year to and from ports of the United Kingdom was 581,099 representing a tonnage of 101,799,050, of these ships 224,669 were steamers, having a tonnage of 66,560,127; besides, about 60,000, Foreign Vessels entered inwards and cleared outwards during the same period to and from British ports, representing a tonnage of

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nearly 20,000,000. These 641,099 ships, British and Foreign, had probably on board, apart from passengers, 4,000,000 of men and boys.

With refererence to the Wreck Register, it states that in 1876-77 the number of wrecks, casualties and collisions from all causes, on and near the coasts of the United Kingdom, was 4,164 which number exceeds that of the previous year by 407, 511 cases out of this large number involved total loss, 502 and 472 representing the same class of calamities for the two preceding years, but deducting 511 from the yearly list of casualties (4,164), the remainder will be found to be made up of 1,120 serious casualties, and 2,533 of minor class of sea accidents. It is a remarkable fact, which is worthy of serious attention, that during the past twenty years, from 1857 to 1876-77, the number of shipwrecks on our coasts alone has averaged 1,948 a year, representing in money value millions upon millions sterling in the aggregate. We do not allude to the countless thousands of lives sacrificed on these disastrous occasions, and on which no money value could be put. The loss of life, of course, would have been enormous but for the gallant and ceaseless services of the Lifeboats of the National Lifeboat Institution. Again between 1861 and 1876-77 the number of ships, both British and Foreign, which came to grief on our coasts, and which were attended with loss of life, was 2,784 causing the loss of 13,098 persons. In 1876-77 loss of life took place in one out of every twenty-two shipwrecks on our coasts.

It is only a truism to say that gales of wind are the prime causes of most shipwrecks, and that those of 1876-77 will long be remembered for their violence and destructive character. Of the 4,164 wrecks, casualties, and collisions reported as having occurred on and near the Coasts of the United Kingdom during the year 1876-77 the total comprised 5,017 vessels, the number of ships in 1876-77 being more than the total in 1875-76 by 463. The number of ships reported is in excess of the casualties reported, because in cases of collision two or more ships are involved in one casualty. Thus 847 of the wrecks were collisions, and 3,317 were wrecks and casualties other than collisions. Of these latter casualties 446 were wrecks, &c., resulting in total loss, 902 were casualties resulting in serious damage, and 1,969 were minor accidents. The whole number of wrecks and casualties other than collisions on and near our coasts reported during the year 1875-76 was 2,982, or 335 less than the number reported during the twelve months under discussion. Of the casualties to the number of 3,317 (excluding collisions) 2,824 are known to have happened to ships belonging to Great Britain and its dependencies, while 493 belonged to Foreign Countries. Of these 2,824 British vessels, 1859 were employed in our own Coasting trade, 745 in the (over sea) foreign and home trade, and 220 as fishing vessels; there were fifteen casualties to ships belonging to Foreign Countries and States em-

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ployed in the British Coasting trade, and 410 to Foreign Vessels bound to or from British Ports, although not actually engaged in our Coasting trade; while there were sixty-eight casualties to Foreign ships which were not trading to or from the United Kingdom. The entire number of English ships, excluding collision cases, which according to the facts reported, appear to have foundered or to have been otherwise totally lost on and near the coasts of the United Kingdom from defects in the ships or their equipments during the year 1876-77 is twenty; while fifty four happened through the errors &c., of masters, officers, crews, or pilots, 180 through stress of weather, and sixty-one from other or unknown causes. The number of casualties arising from the same causes during the same year, and resulting in serious damage is as follows: Through defect, 77; errors, 112; stress of weather, 367; other causes, 170; and the cases of minor damage were, through defects, 106; errors, 190; stress of weather, 1,258; and other causes 229. Again it appears that, excluding Foreign ships and collision cases, 221 wrecks and casualties happened to nearly new ships, and 396 to ships from three to seven years of age, then there are wrecks and casualties to 631 ships from 7 to 14 years old, and to 907 from 15 to 30 years old. Then follow 459 old ships from 30 to 50 years old; having passed the service of half a century, we come to the very old ships, viz., 71 between 50 and 60 years old, 33 from 60 to 70, 24 from 70 to 80, 9 from 80 to 90, and 5 from 90 to 100, while the ages of 68 of the wrecks are unknown. Amongst the losses, excluding collisions, 442 were steamships, and 2,875 were sailing vessels. Of the 2,824 British ships meeting with disaster in the year 1583 did not exceed 100 tons burden, 866 were from 100 to 300 tons, 165 were from 300 to 500 tons, and 210 only were above 500 tons burden. Of the 315 British Vessels totally lost, irrespective of collisions, 25 are known to have been built of iron; and of this number, 23 were steamships, and two sailing vessels. The localities of the wrecks, still excluding collisions, are thus given:—East Coast of England and Scotland, 1,140; South Coast, 630; West Coast of England and Scotland, and Coast of Ireland, 1,259; North Coast of Scotland, 129; and other parts, 159. Total 3,317. The greatest destruction of human life happened on the North and East Coasts of England and Scotland.

The sites of these several terrible disasters are distinctly shown on the Wreck Chart, and on it also the position of the 269 Lifeboats belonging to the National Lifeboat Institution is given.

On former occasions the Wreck Register indicated the direction and force of wind in the case of all the vessels to which disasters had happened in the year, but the present Abstract only gives the winds in 1785 out of the 4164 cases of the year. Dealing with these 1785 cases only, we find that the winds that have been most fatal to the shipping on and near the coasts of the United Kingdom during the year were as follows: N. to E. inclusive, 287;

E. by S. to S. inclusive, 630; S. by W. to W. inclusive, 541; and W. by N. to N. by W. inclusive, 327, total 1785. Again, on distinguishing these last named casualties near the coasts of the United Kingdom, according to the force of the wind at the time at which they happened, we find that 739 happened with the wind at forces seven and eight, or a moderate to fresh gale, when a ship, if properly found, manned and navigated, can keep the sea with safety; and that 1046 happened with the wind at force nine and upwards, that is to say from a strong gale to a hurricane.

We must say one word on the subject of casualties to ships in our rivers and harbours, as the fearful calamity to the steamer "Princess Alice" last September in the Thames has directed anew intense attention to them. We find from the Wreck Register, that the total number during the year 1876—77, was 984, of which seventeen were total losses, 245 were serious casualties, and 722 were minor casualties. Of these casualties collisions numbered 658, founderings 13, strandings 184, and miscellaneous 129. These 984 casualties caused the loss of, or damage to, 1725 vessels, of which 1020 were British sailing vessels, 560 British steam-vessels, 118 foreign sailing vessels, and 27 foreign steam-vessels. The lives lost in these casualties were 15.

With reference to the collisions on and near our coasts during the year 1876—77, 48 of the 847 collisions were between two steamships, both under way, irrespective of numerous other such cases in our harbours and rivers. The particulars are not given in the Abstract. It is impossible to attach too much importance to these facts, for no disaster at sea, or in a river, is often more awful in its consequences than a collision.

As regards the loss of life, the Wreck Abstract shows that the number was 776 from the various shipwrecks enumerated during the year 1876—77. Of the lives lost, 92 were lost in vessels that foundered, 57 through vessels in collision, 470 in vessels stranded, or cast ashore, and 93 in missing vessels. The remaining number of lives lost (64) were lost from various causes, such as through being washed overboard in heavy seas, explosions, missing vessels, &c. Of the 192 ships from which the 776 lives were lost, 131 were British, involving the loss of 459 lives, and 61 were foreign, causing the loss of 317 lives. This number (776) may appear to the casual observer a comparatively small one by the side of the thousands who escaped disaster from the numerous shipwrecks above mentioned; we are, however, of opinion that it is a very large number, and when we bear in mind the inestimable value of human life, we are convinced that no effort should be left untried, which can in any way lessen the annual loss of life from shipwreck on our coasts. On the other hand, great and noble work was accomplished during the same period, 4795 lives having been saved from the various shipwrecks by Lifeboats, the rocket apparatus, shoreboats and other means. In the accomplishment of these noble services, as we constantly report, the boats of the

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National Lifeboat Institution necessarily took a prominent and active part, in conjunction with the Board of Trade's rocket apparatus, which is so efficiently worked by the Coastguard and our Volunteer Brigades.

On the whole we are bound to take courage from the many gratifying facts the Wreck Register reveals, particularly in regard to saving life.

Fortunately that art is well understood on our coasts, thanks to the progress of science—as shown in the splendid Lifeboat exhibited last Lord Mayor's Day—and the gallant men who man, in stormy seas, these Boats of Mercy in the most appalling storms. Thus great work has been done, and is doing, by our admirable organizations—the Lifeboat Institution and the Rocket Apparatus of the Board of Trade. Surely then it is something, amidst all this havoc of the sea, to help to save every year hundreds of lives, with all their hopes, and to keep the otherwise desolate homes unclouded? To aid this merciful work, we confidently appeal on behalf of the National Lifeboat Institution, whose noble Lifesaving fleet of 269 boats is deserving of every support and sympathy from the public.

NOTES ON THE SHIPS AND NAVIGATION OF THE MODERNS. (*Continued.*)

By Lieut. C. R. Low, I.N., F.R.G.S.

As the discoveries in the Eastern hemisphere, from Cape Blanco to Malacca, were made by the Portuguese, so those in the Western hemisphere, from the West Indies to Polynesia, were chiefly due to the enterprise of the Spanish navigators. A few years before Vasco de Gama reached India, Columbus, or Christoval Colon, to call him by his real name, made his famous voyage across the Atlantic and gave to Europe a new world. Columbus, in making this great discovery, so fraught with the most momentous consequences to the human race, had to combat the wildest theories and traditions. It was said that at a time indefinitely remote, there existed a vast insular territory extending beyond the coasts of Europe and Africa, and that this land was called Atlantis. In the fourteenth century, maps were drawn representing this strange country, which having been shaken for three days to its foundation by an incessant earthquake, at length yielded to the irresistible and mysterious power of the Deity, and sank with its inhabitants into the depths of the ocean. It was believed that the inhabitants of Madeira and the other western isles, saw, at certain times, and in very clear weather, land appearing in their western horizon; this land was called St. Brandon's Island, after an Irish Saint held in repute among the Northerners, who sailed these parts in the sixth century, and first raised a belief in the

existence of western lands. In a map published by Martin Behim,* a native of Nuremberg, about the time when Columbus set out on his expedition, we find the island of Antilla, or (the Seven Cities,) lying out to the westward of the Azores. These imaginary cities were said to have been built and occupied by the Christians who fled from Spain when that country was conquered by the Moors; and the Spaniards endeavoured to find them soon after their discovery of America. Northward of these cities the maps of the times placed the Island of the Devil's Hand, in accordance with an Arabian tale, which relates, that in the Indian sea there is an island, near which a great hand rises every night from the water, and, grasping the inhabitants, plunges them into the ocean. Farther on to the westward, but nearer the equator, is St. Brandon's Island, and still farther on are placed many of the countries visited by Marco Polo, the Venetian traveller, which were said to abound in everything rich and beautiful, while the adjacent seas were peopled with sirens. Beyond these countries, but on the other side of the equator, were placed ten small islands, where ships could not sail, owing to the loadstone, which abounds in the rocks, attracting the nails and ironwork out of the ships, and so causing them to fall to pieces. Doubtless these fables had a certain effect upon the mind of Columbus, in stirring him up to solve the problems and difficulties which had long been started on this point, but they

* Martin Behim, or Behaim, for whom, as Robertson complains, some German authors claim the honour of the discovery of America, accompanied Diego Cam in his voyage of discovery along the coast of Africa in 1483, and having obtained a grant of the island of Jayal from the Regent of Portugal, established a colony of Flemings there. In 1492 he returned to Nuremberg, and there constructed a map of the globe, which is still preserved in the library of that city, and of which Robertson, who procured a copy, observes, (See "History of America," Vol. I., p. 368), "The imperfection of cosmographical knowledge is manifest. Hardly one place is laid down in its true situation. Nor can I discover from it any reason to suppose that Behaim had the least knowledge of any region in America." This map was constructed, says Barron, from the writings of Ptolemy, Strabo, and Pliny, and from the modern travels of the Jew, Benjamin of Tudela, of Carpini, Rubruquis, and especially of Marco Polo. The Germans excelled even the Spaniards in their attempts to rob the great Columbus of the credit of being the discoverer of the New World, and by means of forged documents sought to claim for him the discovery of Brazil and Patagonia. From these fabricated letters of Behaim, said to have been written in 1486, and preserved in the archives of Nuremberg, it would appear that "Martin Behaim, traversing the Atlantic Ocean for several years, examined the American Islands, and discovered the Strait which bears the name of Magellan, before either Christopher Columbus or Magellan sailed those seas; whence he mathematically delineated, in a geographical chart for the King of Lusitania, the situation of the coast around every part of that Strait long before Magellan thought of his expedition." As Barron observes, the story of Behaim's prior discoveries had its origin in the following remarkable passage in Pigafetta's narrative of Magellan's famous voyage:—"The Captain-General knew that he must make his passage through a Strait mouth concealed, as he had seen on a chart in the depôt of the King of Portugal, made by that most excellent man, Martin de Bremia." Herrera also asserts that Magellan was in possession of a terrestial globe made by Behaim to assist him in directing his course to the south seas, and that Columbus was confirmed in his opinion of a western navigation by his friend Martin de Bohemia See Burney's "History of Voyages and Discoveries," Vol. I., p. 3.)

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could not have been sufficient to decide the calm and reasoning judgment for which he was conspicuous, that land existed to the westward, and that by sailing in that direction the East Indies must necessarily be reached. A due consideration of the spherical figure of the earth, by which he was aware that India would be approached from Europe if land intervened, with the fullest knowledge of astronomy, geography, and navigation which the times afforded, were the main aids which incited this distinguished navigator to institute, and to carry to a successful termination, the task of examining the more distant portions of the globe.

Irrespective of his claims to immortal renown as the discoverer of the New World, and the enthralling interest attaching to the narrative of his voyages, it is certain that his biography is of value as showing what high character, indomitable perseverance, and illustrious talents will achieve. From his youth he was filled with the consciousness of having a destiny to fulfil, and obstacles and difficulties so far from daunting him, only urged this hero, in the true sense of the word, to persevere until he achieved the discovery of the New World, while dreaming of another. If the first man who launched the frail bark on the stormy billow is entitled to immortal renown, how far greater was the courage of this indomitable seaman who dared to cross the unknown and mysterious Atlantic.

"Illi robur et æs triplex
Circa pectus erat, qui fragilem truci
Commisit pelago ratem
Primus."

Probably few men have found so many biographers as Columbus, the first being his son Ferdinand, who begins his work—for which see "Pinkerton's Collection," vol. xii., and "Churchill's Collection," vol. ii.—by fancifully tracing the ancestry of his father to Junius Colon, of whom Tacitus in his twelfth book says that he brought Mithridates prisoner to Rome. Numerous cities also claim the honour of having given him birth, though from a document produced in a process concerning his dukedom of Veragua, (See the "Viagero Universal,") Ferrara would appear to be the genuine claimant.

The opinions Columbus had formed as to the existence of another hemisphere, must have been strengthened by the report that the inhabitants of some of the islands west of Africa had occasionally picked up pieces of artificially carved wood, which could not have been cut with a knife, and must have been brought thither by strong westerly winds; also seamen navigating those seas had taken up canes of an extraordinary size, described by Ptolemy as being peculiar to India, trunks of large pine trees, which had been torn up by the roots, and plants such as had not been seen in the Old World; and some bodies of men were said to

have been cast by the waves upon the shore of Flores, one of the Azores, of which the features and complexions differed essentially from those of the inhabitants of Africa or of Europe, or from anything hitherto seen, thus pointing to the conclusion that they had been wafted over from the west. After much toil and vexation of body and mind, endured first at the Court of Portugal, which deluded him, and afterwards at the Court of Spain, he at length in the year 1492 sailed with three vessels, having on board less than one hundred men. The task Columbus set himself was to reach the Kingdoms of Cathay, or China, and Zipangu, or Japan, which formed, according to the cosmography of the day, part of the great continent of India, on the Asiatic Coast, and were distant about one-third of the circumference of the earth, as he supposed. He thus set out under the influence of two favourable, though mistaken, ideas, first, that Asia extended considerably more to the east than it really does, and secondly, that the earth was much smaller than we now know it to be.

Columbus sailed from Palos on his ever-memorable voyage on Friday, the 3rd of August, 1492, with three vessels, the 'St. Mary,' 'Pinta,' and 'Nina,' having on board crews of the aggregate strength of ninety men, the commanders of the two latter vessels being those "skilful mariners" Martin Alonzo and Vincent Yanez Pinzon, who were accompanied by their brother Francis Martinez Pinzon. During the voyage hope failed in the hearts of all the officers and seamen, and they were only restrained from breaking out into open mutiny by the determined bearing of Columbus, who appeared as though inspired, and at length when they had sailed 950 leagues from the Canaries, for a period of thirty-three days, land was first sighted by a sailor, whose name, Roderick de Trians, deserves to be immortalized. In the morning Columbus, accompanied by the Pinzons, landed with a flag bearing a green cross with three crowns and the names of their Catholic Majesties. "Having all kissed the ground, and on their knees given thanks to God for the goodness he had shown them, the Admiral stood up and gave that island the name of San Salvador, which the men called Guanahani, being one of those afterwards called Lucayo Islands." After discovering other islands in the Bahamas and Hispaniola, where he lost his ship, and planted a colony at a point he called Navidad, (the Nativity,) Columbus sailed on the 4th of January, 1493, and putting in at Lisbon, where he had an audience of the King of Portugal, arrived safely at Palos on the 15th of March.*

Columbus' journey from Seville to the Royal Court at Barcelona was a triumphal procession, and Ferdinand and Isabella

* A curious reference is made in this voyage to mermaids, whose existence was believed in by mariners of that day. "The Admiral affirmed that he had seen three mermaids that raised themselves above the water, and that they were not so handsome as they are painted, that they had something like a human face, and that he had seen others on the coast of Guanim."

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received him with great distinction. The King secured a Bull from Pope Alexander VI., dated the 2nd of May, 1493, granting him the recent discoveries, and the Pope, in order to prevent disputes with the Portuguese, who were then in the full career of their discoveries in the Eastern hemisphere, exercised his claim to dispose of the kingdoms of the earth by issuing on the same day a second Bull, fixing as limits of partition between these two powers, a meridian to be drawn from pole to pole, one hundred leagues west of the Azores and Cape de Verde Islands, from which time all newly discovered lands as far as 180° to the west were to belong to the crown of Spain, and the same distance eastward to the Portuguese. In 1494, however, at the instance of the latter, the line of partition was removed 270 leagues more to the west.

The King now hastened the departure of Columbus on a second voyage of exploration, and accordingly, on the 25th of September, 1493, he sailed with seventeen ships from Cadiz, and leaving Gomera in the Canaries on the 7th of October, on the 3rd of November discovered the island he named Dominica, because it was seen on Sunday morning. The same day he sighted the island he named after his ship Marigalante, where he landed, and on the 4th the island of Santa Maria Guadaloupe was named, after a monastery in Spain; the inhabitants described themselves as Caribees or Canibals, by which name, and that of Antilles, all the group to the east of Porto Rico was known. Proceeding towards Hispaniola, Columbus named Montserat, because of its height, Redonda, on account of its being round, Santa Maria da Antigna, St. Martin, a group he called "the Eleven Thousand Virgins," (the largest being named St. Ursula,) and St. John the Baptist, called by the Indians Boriquen, now known as Porto Rico. On the 28th Columbus anchored at Navidad, in Hispaniola, but found the settlement burnt and deserted, and on making inquiries, learnt that the Christians had all been either killed by the Indians, or drowned when attempting to escape.

On the 7th of December Columbus proceeded to the eastward, and planted a colony which he called Isabella, and on the 2nd of February sent twelve of his ships back to Castille, under the command of Anthony de Torres, with a full account of his proceedings to date, retaining two ships and three caravels. On the 12th of March he proceeded inland to the mines of Cibao, which had been "prospected," as Australians say, by Alonzo de Hodeida, and here, eighteen leagues from Isabella, he built a fort he called St. Thomas. Columbus having resolved to continue his discoveries, appointed a council to govern the island of Hispaniola in his absence, of which the President was his brother James, and sailed on the 24th of April for Cuba. Five days later he crossed the passage between Cape St. Nicholas and that island, and anchored in a bay situated a league beyond Cabo

Puerto, which he called Puerto Granda (Grand Port). On the 1st of May he continued his voyage along the coast, discovering and naming the harbours, rivers, and headlands, and on the 14th of May crossed over to Jamaica, and gave the harbour in which he cast anchor the name of Puerto Bueno, because he "thought it was the best of any he had yet seen in the Indies." After a skirmish with the natives he sailed on the 9th, and leaving Jamaica on the 15th, crossed over to that point of Cuba which he called Cabo de Santa Cruz, (Cape of the Holy Cross). The Admiral sailed along the coast, past numberless islands, 160 being counted in one day, and 71 on the second, the navigation among which increased his labour and anxiety, as we are told that "though he was much spent, because he had not slept or lain in bed ever since he went from Spain till the 19th of May, except eight nights, as appears by his Journal, when he was very much indisposed." On the 13th of June, perceiving that the coast of Cuba still trended to the west, although he had been assured by an Indian a few days before that it was an island, and his supply of provisions failing him, he returned towards Hispaniola. On the 18th of July he arrived at Cape Cruz in Cuba, near which he nearly lost his ship in a violent storm on the 9th of August, and standing over to Jamaica, named the most easterly cape on the south coast, Cabo del Farol. Proceeding on his voyage along the coast of Hispaniola, on the 24th of September he named Cape St. Raphael, and touched at the island of Mona, between Hispaniola and Porto Rico, and on the 29th arrived at Isabella. Here the Admiral, to his great joy, met his brother Bartholomew, whom he had sent seven years before to King Henry VII. of England, to propose that he should undertake the discoveries, and who had arrived from Spain, in the previous April, with three ships bringing provisions. Columbus appointed Bartholomew, who is described as "a very wise man, and as expert in sea affairs as his brother," Adelantado, or Lord-Lieutenant, which Ferdinand resented, but ultimately confirmed him in the title.

At this time Pedro Margarite, one of Columbus' officers, refused to obey his orders, and sailed with some vessels for Spain, where he spread lying reports of the doings of his Commander, who, on his part, having conquered the inland part of Hispaniola, and placed his brother Bartholomew in command, with another brother James to succeed, in the event of his death, sailed on the 10th of March, 1496, with two caravels, John Aguado being in command of the second, having on board 220 men. Calling at Marigalante and Guadaloupe, which he left on the 20th of April, on the 8th of June the land between Cape St. Vincent and Lisbon was sighted, and the Admiral, landing, journeyed to Burgos, where he was personally received by Ferdinand and Isabella. One ship under Peter Fernandez was

sent with supplies for the colonists in Hispaniola, but, owing to difficulties thrown into his way by the numerous enemies his success had raised—chief among whom were Juan Fonseca, Archdeacon of Seville, and afterwards Bishop of Burgos—it was not until May, 1498, that he could procure a fleet sufficient to carry the necessary supplies to his brother Bartholomew, who during his absence had founded the settlement of San Domingo.

Columbus sailed from San Lucar, on his third voyage, on the 18th of May, with six ships, and having sent from Gomera three ships with supplies in advance, proceeded to the Cape de Verde Islands, and, steering a new course, on the 31st of July sighted a headland he called De la Galera (Gally Point) in an island to which he gave the name of Trinidada. He named Punta dela Playa (Point of Strand) on the island where he took in water, and Punta del Arenal (Sandy Point) and entered the bay he called De la Ballena (or the Whale), without knowing that he was close to the continent of South America. From Point del Arenal, where his men went ashore to refresh themselves, he saw towards the N.W. what he believed to be an island, which he called Isla Santa, "which," says Harris, "proved to be the province he afterwards called Paria." "Being come up to the continent," adds the historian, "which he at this time thought to be an island, he named a headland Cape Boto, (burnt) and another in Trinidada he called De Lapa, the distance between them being five leagues, with two little islands in the middle, one of which he named El Caracal, (the Snail,) and the other El Dolfin, (the Dolphin)." Owing to the narrowness of the strait dividing Trinidada from the continent, and the broken water of the River Yayapari, where it flows into the sea at the Bay of Bacena, he called the passage Boca del Drago, or the "Dragon's Mouth." Columbus now explored the coast line for some distance, naming Capes Bellaforma, (because it looked well,) Del Aguina, (Needle,) and Sabeta, also a large town, "the Gardens," and other points, Ysabeta and Tramontana, and a large bay, De los Perles, or "the Bay of Pearls." On the 11th of August he retraced his steps, intending to proceed to Hispaniola, "to send for men and provisions into Spain, and order his brother to continue this discovery;" and, passing between Capes Boto and Lapa, sailed along the continent, naming the Capes De Conchas, (Cape of Shells,) Luenga, (Long Cape,) and Capes Salor and Rico; also some islands, including Margarita and Cubaque. On the 16th of August he steered towards Hispaniola, and arrived on the 22nd at Santo Domingo, where he was received by his brother Bartholomew, who informed him of the rebellion of Roldan. Some days later arrived the three ships he had sent on in advance from the Madeiras, under Alonzo Sanchez De Carvajal, Pedro de Arand, and John Anthony Columbus, which had put into the port of Xaragua, where Roldan had established himself

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with his followers: ultimately one hundred and two of these men addressed a petition to Columbus in October, 1499, praying forgiveness and asking that lands might be assigned to them, and he placed them in the province of Xaragua and other places, "which," says the historian, "was the first distribution made in the Indies."

At this time the intrigues and lying reports regarding Columbus, spread by his rebellious followers who had returned to Spain, resulted in Ferdinand and Isabella adopting a course of conduct towards that illustrious man which forms an eternal blot on their memory. Instigated by these mutineers and his enemies at Court, chief among whom was Forseca, the Bishop of Burgos, their Catholic Majesties, on the 21st of May, 1499, appointed one Travies de Bobadilla, described as "a poor Knight of the Order of Calatrava," to proceed as judge to Hispaniola, "to enquire into all these affairs, ordering him, in case he found the Admiral guilty of what was alleged, to send him to Spain and stay there himself as Governor." Bobadilla arrived at Santo Domingo at the end of August, 1500, when Columbus and his brother was at Conception, "settling the affairs of that province, where his brother had been attacked by the rebels." Establishing himself at the palace, on the 7th of September he sent John de la Sera with the Royal Despatch to Columbus, who immediately returned, and Bobadilla, "in the beginning of October, without any legal information, sent him prisoner aboard a ship, together with his brother James, putting them in irons and a guard over them, and ordered under severe penalties that none should dare speak to them." On the voyage to Spain, Andrew Martin, the Captain, would have removed the irons, but Columbus would not permit it, saying, "That since their Catholic Majesties, by their letter directed him to perform whatsoever Bobadilla, in their names, commanded him to do, he would have none but their Highnesses themselves to do their pleasure herein; and he was resolved to keep these fetters as relics and memorials of the reward of his many services, as accordingly he did, for these irons hung up in his room, and he ordered them to be buried with him." On the 20th of November, Columbus wrote from Cadiz acquainting their Majesties of his arrival, when they immediately directed his release, and sent him very gracious letters expressing their sorrow at the sufferings and indignities to which he had been subjected. On his arrival at Granada, where the Court was, Ferdinand and Isabella personally expressed their regret, and despatched Nicholas de Olanda, as Governor to Hispaniola, with instructions to exonerate Columbus, and compel Bobadilla to make restitution to the Admiral of all his property which he had seized.

On the 20th of May, 1499, Alonzo de Ojeda,* one of Colum-

* Harris says, "Though he and Vespucci never saw any other part of the con-

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bus's companions on his second voyage, under the patronage of the Bishop of Burgos, sailed from Seville with four ships to explore the coast of South America, accompanied by Americus Vespucci, a Florentine, whose letters appear in "Ramusio's Collection," vol. i. The Continent of America very improperly received its name from Vespucci,† who is described by Herrera as "a vain man, but an enterprising good navigator," whereas not only is Columbus entitled to the honour, he having discovered the West India Islands, of which the discovery of the continent was a necessary consequence, but in August, 1498, he sighted the mainland which Cabot had already seen in the previous year. Not long after Ojeda sailed, some inhabitants of Seville formed a Company, and Peter Alonso Nino, an inhabitant of Palos, who was with Columbus when Paria was discovered, obtained a license from the King, "upon condition that he should not come to anchor, nor land anywhere within fifty leagues of what the Admiral had discovered." One, Guerra, having agreed to defray the necessary expense provided his brother Christopher went as captain, they arrived at the province of Paria a few days after Ojeda. They carried on a brisk trade in pearls with the Indians on the coast, and arrived in Galicia on the 6th of February, 1500.

In 1499, Vincent Yanez Pinzon, an able and daring seaman, who had sailed with Columbus in his first voyage, fitted out four ships at his own cost, and proceeded on a voyage of discovery. Quitting St. Jago in the Cape de Verde Islands, on the 13th January, 1500, he crossed the equinoctial line, being the first Spanish ship to do so, and on the 26th February, being drawn to the westward by a storm, sighted land which Pinzon named Cabo de Consolation (Cape Comfort) which was afterwards called Cape St. Augustine. He landed and took possession of the country in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella, and after a vain attempt to induce the people to trade, in which life was lost on both sides, continued his voyage to the mouths of the Maranon, since named Amazon, from the statements of travellers that they saw armed women on its banks. Pinzon now proceeded to Paria, and thence to the Carribee Islands, and while at anchor here a dreadful storm arose, in which two of his ships sunk with all hands on board. He refitted the two others at Hispaniola, and returned to Spain in

tinent than what Columbus had discovered sailing from the Island of Trinity along the coast to Venezuela, yet he impudently pretended to have first discovered the continent. In Spain the falsehood and injustice of his pretensions were soon discovered, for whereas he pretended that after a voyage of thirteen months spent in discoveries he returned directly to Spain, Ojeda positively made oath that he spent but five months on the voyage.

† This arose from the circumstance that in 1507, after Columbus's death, Vespucci was employed by the King of Spain, with the title of Pilot-Major, in making charts of the new discoveries, he gave his own name to the land of South America, which has since been extended to the whole continent. Vespucci is described as "the most accomplished draughtsman and cartographer of his time."

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September, having explored 600 leagues of coast line. Soon after Pinzon's discovery of the Maranon, a Spanish navigator who had sailed from Spain in December, 1499, arrived at the mouths of that river, when the inhabitants enraged at Pinzon having captured thirty-six of their countrymen, attacked him and killed several of his crew. The discovery of the vast country, known as Brazil,* from the wood abounding there, is due to Pedro Alvarez de Cabral, a Portuguese Officer, who sailed from Lisbon on the 9th March, 1500, with a fleet of thirteen ships, having on board 1,200 men for the East Indies. Having kept far to the westward to avoid the calms that prevail on the Guinea Coast, on the 24th April he fell in with the coast of America. He brought to an anchor in a harbour which he called Puerto Seguro (safe harbour) and communicated with the people whom he found very friendly. Cabral called the country Santa-Cruz, or Holy Cross, and having sent a ship to Portagal under Gaspar de Lemoa, with news of the discovery, and left behind two men, sailed for the East Indies.

Columbus continued to press their Catholic Majesties for permission to return to the Indies, but his proposals were received with coldness, until he expressed an opinion that he should be able to discover a passage to the East Indies, and add that portion of the world as well as the West Indies to the crown of Castille and Leon. This had the desired effect; a fleet of 4 ships, one commanded by his brother Bartholomew, was immediately fitted out, and he set sail from Cadiz on the 9th May, 1502, arriving at Martinique on the 15th June, he touched at Dominica, Santa Cruz and Porto Rico, and proposed to proceed to San Domingo to change one of his ships which was a bad sailor, for another, as he designed to explore the coast of Paria to the westward until he came to the strait which he concluded existed about the isthmus o' Panama. In order to give notice to Orlando, the Governor, he sent in advance Peter de Terreres, one of his captains, at the same time advising him not to permit the departure of the homeward-bound fleet for a period of eight days as a storm was imminent. But the Governor would not listen to the advice of Columbus, and scarcely had the fleet of eighteen ships sailed than they were overtaken by a terrific hurricane, in which only four were saved, the rest foundering with their crews, among those who were drowned being Bobadilla, Roldan, and most of the rebels to Columbus' authority. As for the Admiral, being refused admittance to San

* Adventurers visited and settled in Brazil, but in 1549, John III. of Portugal sent Thomas de Souza as Governor-General of Brazil, with six ships, a large number of men, and six Hermit fathers to convert the people. In 1555 Nicholas Durant, with a party of Huguenots in three vessels, sought refuge here from the tyranny of Henry II. of France, and in November settled at a place to which they gave the name of Fort Coligny, where they were joined by some Protestants from Geneva. In 1625, the Dutch made themselves masters of the capital, called St. Salvador, and the struggle between the Portuguese continued until, by the terms of the treaty of 6th of August, 1660, they finally resigned all claims to Brazil to the House of Braganza.

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Domingo, he took shelter as close to the land as he could. During the storm three of his ships broke away, but they all rendezvoused in safety at the Port of Agua, on the south side of Hispaniola. Columbus sailed on the 14th July, and came to the island he called Guanaia near the country now known as Honduras, which he named Cape Casinas.

Sailing to the eastward, he called the coast De la Orejas ("of the ears") because the ears of the inhabitants were bored with large holes. On the 14th August, his brother went ashore at a cape he named Gracias a Dios, and took possession of the country for the crown of Spain. During the months of September and October, the Admiral explored the entire coast to the southward and eastward, naming the towns, rivers, and headlands, and on the 2nd November he arrived at Puerto or Porto Bello, giving it that name, "because it was large, beautiful, well peopled, and encompassed by a well-cultivated country;" without knowing it, he was at the narrowest part of the neck of land joining the continents of North and South America and close to the vast Pacific Ocean, the highway he dreamt of, which was to carry his ships to the traditional Spice Islands, now known to the world as the Moluccas. The coast was further explored, and in the beginning of January the ships cast anchor near a river which the people called Yebra, and the Admiral Belem or Bethlem, because it was the feast of the Three Kings. He undertook some explorations of this river and the adjacent country, where were said to be the mines of Keraqua, and in the latter part of February a colony of eighty men, under Bartholomew Columbus, was established on the banks of the river Bolemal. But the Indians attacked the colonists, and they suffered heavy loss, and were forced to take refuge in the ships, one of which was abandoned. At Porto Bello, whither they proceeded, the second vessel being too leaky to float, was left behind, and sailing thence towards Hispaniola, they discovered the small islands the Admiral called the Tortugas (the Tortoises) now know as the Caymans; whence, after visiting Cuba, they sailed to Jamaica. As the ships were now in such a condition, that though the pumps were working all day they could not be kept above water, they were beached, and on the 7th July, 1503, Columbus sent some of his officers in two canoes to Santo Domingo with a request to the Governor that a ship might be sent to bring them away. After enduring the direst sufferings through thirst, Trendez de Sagura reached Domingo, but owing to delays by Orlanda, it was not until the 28th June, 1504, that a ship and carravel arrived to remove the shipwrecked mariners from Jamaica to Hispaniola. Meantime a large party under Francis de Porras had broken ont into open mutiny, but Bartholomew Columbus defeated them in a severe action on the 20th May, and they gave in their submission.

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(*To be continued.*)

CRITICAL NOTICES.

Adventurous Lives. By Bernard Henry Becker.—(R. Bentley & Son, London.)

It has seldom been our good fortune to read a more interesting book than this. Every paragraph contains an anecdote, every page has its surprise, and every chapter is replete with historical associations and memories of wonderful people. The title "Adventurous" is, we think, a most befitting one, insomuch that the adjective applies in its fullest sense, when, as here, it is used to describe the careers of fortunate, daring, or unsuccessful individuals.

The notices given of each of the four and twenty famous personages by the author, are necessarily brief, but then, how much does he really tell us about them all, in this condensed form. A few sentences depicts the characters of the persons, and a few more introduces us to their companions, and to their mode of living, and so the distilling—if we may use such a word—goes on, until we have every one in turn placed before us, with a faithfulness of idea and of purpose, which it would be only fitting to term "Photographs of the Pen." How wonderfully well have they all come out. No smudges or dark shadows appear on the pictures, and whether it is John Law or Sir William Mandeville, Cagliostro, or that prince among Englishmen, William Caxton, the character of each stands clear and distinctly out. The reader is introduced to Madame Grand, where her relations with Philip Francis at Calcutta were nearly as scandalous as those which then existed between Warren Hastings and the Baroness Imhoff. Disappearing from India, Madame Grand is next heard of in Paris, then appears in London, having fled from France after the massacres there in 1792. She again vanishes, and when she comes to the surface, it is upon the arm of the man who in his time served "king, republic, directory, consulate, empire, royalty and constitutional monarchy by turns," but who, above all, served himself. This was Charles Maurice de Talleyrand, sometimes Abbé de Perigord, then Bishop of Autun, and afterwards Prince of Benevento. Madame de Grand now figures as Madame de Talleyrand in a pretty house at Montmorency. People were not in those days over particular as to the marriage tie, and although Citizen Talleyrand is a bishop, "Madame Grand becomes Citizeness Talleyrand all the same."

She was still beautiful, and to have captivated two such men as Francis and Talleyrand must, one would suppose, have been wise and witty, as well as lovely. It appears she was neither humorous nor learned. Napoleon asks Talleyrand, "Why have you chosen for your partner such a fool?" "Because I could not find a greater," was the reply; and yet Charles-Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord evidently loved *the fool* better than he loved any other human being, always, of course, excepting himself.

The career of Madame Grand begins the first volume, that of a still more remarkable and beautiful woman, Térézia Cabarrus, afterwards Madame de Fontenoy, afterwards Madame Tallien, afterwards Princess De Chimay, concludes the second. Between those two the reader will find even a richer store, for whatever is known of the celebrated characters he has, for the time, resuscitated from the tomb, the author relates, and in a manner evidently as authentic as it is instructive, and we most cordially congratulate Mr. Becker upon writing such a book, while at the same time we here beg to convey to him our best thanks for the intellectual treat his work has afforded us.

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THE EMPIRE LIBRARY.

Under this attractive, and we venture to predict, enduring title, Messrs Bentley & Son have with six books began the publication of a series, which, they state, is meant "to place before the public such works of Travel, Biography or Fiction as have already acquired some notoriety, or are the production of popular Authors, in a handy and cheap form."

The first on the list is designated "The Land o' the Leal," by the Author of "Coming thro' the Rye," "Cherry Ripe," &c., and when we say that, for power, plot, and pathos, it is second to none of Miss Mathers' previous efforts, we have said enough in its favour to satisfy the majority of readers, who, when we further mention that No. 3 of the series, "As He Comes up the Stair," is also by Miss Mathers, will doubtless be proportionally all the better pleased. But the Empire Library, so far, is strong all through. Another volume consists of two of Miss Florence Montgomery's matchless tales, namely "A Very Simple Story" and "Wild Mike," the fourth is "Ralph Wilton's Weird," by that charming novelist Mrs. Alexander, and whoever has read her "Wooing O't," will require little persuasion to read this, her later production. The fifth volume is Mrs. Edwards' "Blue Stocking," and the sixth, "Five Years Penal Servitude, By one who has endured it," has in a much more expensive form run through seven editions. To express a wish that such a series of books as we have named above should prove a success, would be almost an impertinence. In fact, we understand that the sale has already been something marvellous, and so far from the demand falling off, it continues rapidly to increase. If the man who makes two blades of grass grow where only one had previously been, ought to be considered a public benefactor, surely he who places within easy reach of all such intellectual treasures as we have just referred to, is equally deserving of praise. At least that is our opinion, believing, as we do, that cheap literature has done, and will do, more for the education and intellectual development of the human race in general, and Englishmen in particular, than all the Colleges and School Boards put together.

THE HOUSE-SURGEON; OR, THE DOCTOR AT HOME. Tenth Edition.

This eminently useful, handy little book should be in every house, containing as it does full instructions for the prompt treatment of accidents and emergencies before the arrival of medical aid. Hundreds of valuable lives are lost yearly, simply because the people at hand are helpless. They have not the necessary knowledge, and, consequently, can only look on, while one, near and dear to them, passes away out of life, leaving them nothing but a memory and a feeling of what they would now give for a touch of the vanished hand, and once more to hear the sound of the voice "for ever still." The brochure has been published by "The Accident Insurance Company, 7, Bank Buildings, Lothbury," for the benefit of their many policy holders, and we have no hesitation in saying, were the information contained in it more generally known, the saving of life as well as of much suffering would be great. Like the advantages the "Accident Insurance Company" offers, this Book cannot be too well known.

OUR BLUE JACKETS. A Narrative of Miss Weston's Life and Work among our Sailors. By an Eye-witness. Hodder and Stoughton. London, 1878.

What Miss Robinson has done for our soldiers, Miss Weston is evidently endeavouring to accomplish among our sailors, and in this lies the true value of the book now before us, which in a quiet, unostentatious way, tells how much this lady has done for the welfare of seamen, both morally and intellectually. She began in a very small way,

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having, in the early part of 1868, received permission from the Rev. E. J. Wright, the Chaplain, to visit patients at the Bath United Hospital, and from that time till now, she has devoted her whole energies in the cause of humanity in general, and the good of sailors in particular. Finding how much seamen on foreign stations craved for letters from home, she endeavoured, at first, to satisfy this want, but so great was the demand upon her time, that she was obliged soon to print her letters, and now they are sent by thousands monthly to our tars abroad and at home. But she is more than this to our Blue Jackets, she is their adviser in all troubles, their banker, and, above all, their sincere friend. We heartily commend this small book, and feel sure no ship's library will be without a copy, and very few of the seamen whose welfare Miss Weston has devoted ten years of her life to benefit, but will have one also.

OBITUARY.

Retired Commander William F. Parsons died on Oct. 21, at Delos Lodge, Parkstone, Dorset, aged 56 years.

General Henry Ivatt Delacombe, C.B., Royal Marine Light Infantry, the senior general on the List, died on Nov. 15, at an advanced age of 89, at his residence, 19 Albion Street, Hyde Park Square.

Lieut.-Gen. Charles Otway, retired full pay, Royal Artillery, died at his residence, 3 St. Germain's Terrace, Blackheath, on Nov. 15.

Retired Rear-Admiral Samuel Mercer died on Oct. 25, at Deal, in his 71st year.

Retired Capt. William H. Balliston, died at his residence at Brixton, on Nov. 3, aged 67.

Retired Captain Charles Bampfield Yule died on Nov. 1, at his residence, Anderton, Cornwall. The deceased officer was the first explorer of a southern part of New Guinea in 1847, and was employed eight years in surveying the eastern cost of Australia and the outlying barrier reefs, Torres Strait, the southern coast of New Guinea, and the Louisiade Archipelago. He afterwards completed the "Australia Directory," published by the Admiralty, to facilitate the navigation of the coasts of Australia.

General Sir John Garvock, G.C.B., died on Nov. 10, at 81 Queen's Gate, South Kensington. He entered the Army in 1835, and was Major of Brigade in Sir Harry Smith's division throughout the Sikh campaign of 1845-46, and was present at the battles of Moodkee, Ferozeshah, Buddiwal, Aliwal, and Sobraon (where he was severely wounded). He served on Sir Harry Smith's staff at the defeat of the Boers at Boem Plaats in 1848, and in the Caffre war 1850-52. After serving at the head of the Quartermaster-General's Department in Ceylon and in command of a brigade at Dover, he was appointed to the Peshawur division, and placed at the head of the Eusafzaie Field Force, in Dec. 1863. The operations proved perfectly successful, and he was nominated K.C.B. He was advanced to G.C.B. in 1875.

Maj-General Frederick English, C.B., late of the 53rd Regiment, died at 13 Oxford Place, Cheltenham, on Nov. 4, in his 63rd year.

PROMOTIONS AND APPOINTMENTS.

NAVY.

Admiralty Oct. 25.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of April 30, 1877, Engineer E. C. Legh has this day been placed on the Retired List.

Oct. 29.

Acting Chief Engineer E. H. Willey has been confirmed in his rank as chief engineer in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of July 12.

Nov. 5.

The undermentioned staff surgs. have been promoted to the rank of fleet surgeon in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority as stated against their names:—R. C. P. Lawrensoe (July 18), T. G. Wilson, (Oct. 6), R. Humphreys (Oct. 13).

Nov. 6.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Lieut. G. J. Capes has been this day placed on the Retired List of his rank.

Nov. 13.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Paymaster C. Barrs has been placed on the Retired List from the 8th inst.

Nov. 14.

Staff Surg. J. F. Mitchell has been promoted to the rank of Fleet surgeon in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of Oct. 7.

Nov. 18.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Lieut. R. O. Webb has been this day placed on the Retired List, with permission to assume the rank and title of retired commander.

The Rev. J. M. Clarkson, M.A. has this day been appointed chaplain in her Majesty's Fleet, with seniority of 16th inst.

Nov. 19.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Order in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, Lieut. C. W. P. Bouverie has been this day placed on the retired list of his rank.

Nov. 21.

The announcement which appeared in the Gazette of the 19th inst. that the Rev. J. M. Clarkson has been appointed a chaplain in her Majesty's fleet, with seniority of 16th inst,, is cancelled.

In accordance with the provisions of her Majesty's Orders in Council of April 30, 1877, Engineer W. Skeen has this day been placed on the retired list of his rank.

Commander—Francis Romilly, to Boadicea.

Staff Commander-in-Command —John R. Ryan, to Vivid, vice Wise, period of service expired.

Lieutenant-in-Command — Herbert G. Archer, to Conflict.

Lieutenants—John P. Pipon of Elk, to the royal yacht Victoria and Albert; Right Hon. Lord F. H. P. Cecil, to be flag-lieut. to Admiral Farquhar, commander-in-chief at Devonport; Robert S. Rolleston, to Britannia; vice Archer; Henry H. Dyke, to Elk; vice Pipon: Arthur E. Saul, to Excellent; the Hon. Henry N. Shore, to Achilles, vice Atkinson, superseded at his own request; Thos. J. Oswell, and Percy C. Raitt, to Achilles (additional); H. Preedy, to Boadicea; Charles R. P. Hume, to Tenedos: Henry J. Jeffrys, to Alacrity; Waties Corbett, from Penelope to Wolverene; Wm. S. P. Graves, to Indus; James G. Bremer, to Penelope; George Izat, John Gibbings, Frederick Papilon, Arthur J. Horsley, Ebenezer Rae, James Knowles, and Reginald P. Cochran, to Excellent; David L. Dickson, to Indus, for Thetis; E. Duncombe, to Garnet.

Navigating Lieut.—George W.

Balliston, to Pembroke (for Comus)

Sub-Lieuts.—John A. B. Milton, to Malabar; Wm. H. Arnold, to Vulture; Robert H. J. Stewart, to Penguin; Fredk. S. Sieveking, to Conflict; Henry C. Kingsford, and Edward G. S. Shortland, to Alexandra; Charles H. H. Moore, to Invincible; James W. Little to Minotaur; Alfred E. Rawnsley, to Raleigh; Lewis A Knight to Bellerophon; Dayrell Davies, to Egeria: Edward H Currey, to Spartan: Richard H. L. Risk, to Valorous; Alfred E. Rawnsley, to Valorous; Richard H. L. Risk, to Raleigh.

Midshipmen—H. Cotesworth, to Boadicea; J. I. Graham, and J. H. Fox, to Agincourt: E. St. J. B. Neale, and E. R. Sankey, to Garnet.

Staff Surgeons—T. L. Bickford, to Penelope: T. Coury, to Rapid; R. Hay, M.D., to Rapid; H. N. M. Sedgwick, to Nankin.

Surgeons — A. Langdon, to Pallas: J. O'Callaghan, B.A., to Hector; C. A. Macaulay, M.D., to Duke of Wellington; J. Allen, to Penelope.

Paymasters—H. H. Shanks, to be secretary to Admiral Farquhar; G. Love, to be secretary to Vice-Admiral Sir W. K. Hall, K.C.B.; G. W. Muir, from Endymion to Iron Duke (additional, as Naval Accountant, &c., at Yokohama); W. B. Hutchinson, to Victor Emanuel (additional, for charge of Naval Victualling Stores at Shanghai); T. Winterbottom, to Victor Emanuel, vice Wyatt, period of service expired; T. R. Dinnis, to Endymion, for service on shore, vice Muir.

Chief Engineeer—J. Jeffries to Malabar (additional).

Engineers—R. A. Shapcott, to Victor Emanuel (additional); R. J. W. Earl, to Tamar.

COASTGUARD.

Chief Boatmen—W. Russell (Lossiemouth), T. Parker (Berwick), J. Whilsmith (Peterhead), and A. McDonald (Elie), to be chief boatmen-in-charge, and appointed, respectively, to Redheugh, Frazerburgh, Burgead, and Garack, the latter in Clyde district; James Croake (Rathmullan) to be chief-boatman-in-charge, vice Barber.

Commissioned Boatmen—Wm. Lee (Caistor, appointed to St. Nicholas, vice Warren, pensioned), John Yee (Keel), John Chesmett (Derkmore), and I. Fisher (Woodbridge Haven, appointed to Shellness, vice Hyslop, pensioned), to be chief boatmen, George Hyde (Lyme Cobb) to be chief boatman at Lyme Cobb, vice Tiltman, Wm. Pearce, Daniel McMillan, and M. McCallum to be chief boatmen.

ROYAL MARINES.

Admiralty, Oct. 28.

The following promotions have taken place in the Royal Marine Light Infantry, viz.:—Lieut. E. S. Innes to be captain vice Lecky, retired, physically unfit for further service (Oct. 9). Lieut. and Assist. Musketry Instructor A. B. Lizardet to be capt, vice Tully, retired, physically unfit for further service (Oct. 19).

Nov. 5.

Maj. C. R. H. Mitchell, Seconded List, Royal Marine Light Infantry, has been placed on the Retired List from Nov. 4, under the provisions of her Majesty's Orders in Council of Feb. 22, 1870, and Feb. 5, 1872, at his own request.

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ARMY.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Oct. 22.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Oct. 23, 1878:—

28th Foot—Lieut. Gen. T. Brooke to be col., vice Gen. Sir. H. J. W. Bentinck, K.C.B., deceased.

Brigade Depot.

Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. E. Foster, from half-pay, late 12th Foot, to be lieut. col., vice Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. F. R. S. Flood, has been placed on half-pay.

Commissariat and Transport Department.

Deputy Com. J. W. Elmes to be com., vice R. S. Price, deceased. Assist. Com. Gen. F. G. Swan has been granted retired pay from Oct. 1, 1878, on reorganisation of the department. Assist. Com. Gen. J. M. Lindsey has been granted retired pay from Oct. 1, 1878, on reorganisation of the Department.

Ordnance Store Department.

The following non-commissioned officers to be sub assist. coms.:—Sergt. Major R. Moore, Army Service Corps. Staff Sergeant F. Paterson, Army Service Corps.

Army Pay Department.

The Christian names of Paymaster and Hon. Capt. O'Brien are James Ashly Bourke, and not as stated in the Gazettes of April 2 and 19, 1878.

Chaplains' Department.

Chap. of the Second Class the Rev. C. A. A. Craven, M.A., to be chap. of the First Class.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Oct. 22.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Oct. 23, 1878.

Artillery.

Donegal—C. A. S. Montgomery, gent., to be second lieut.

Dublin City—Capt. W. B. Digby, to be major.

The Duke of Edinburgh's Own Edinburgh—Capt. F. W. Carter to be major. The Christian name of Second Lieut. Mayhew is Hervey, and not Henry as stated in the Gazette of Oct. 1, 1878.

Fife—Sub Lieut. W. A. Thomson, to be lieut.

Galway—T. C. Lambert, Esq., late Capt. 29th Foot, to be capt. A. M. Browne, gent., to be second lieut.

Hampshire—Sub Lieut. C. H. S. Clarke to be lieut. Capt. G. W. M. Turnbull, Royal Artillery, resigns his commission as adjt.

Waterford—Second Lieut. R. P. Hudson to be lieut.

Infantry.

1st Derby—Capt. Wm. Thos. E. Cox is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement; Sept. 21, 1878.

2nd Derby—Second Lieutenant Arthur G. Barnes to be lieut.

Dorset—Lieut. Thomas St. Lo Malet to be capt. Laurence Parke, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd, or North Durham—Second Lieut. Edmund A. W. Cox to be lieut.

West Essex—The surname of the Gent. whose appointment as Second Lieut. appeared in the Gazette of April 23, 1878, is Learmonth, and not Learmouth as therein stated.

Royal North Gloucester—Edwd. R. Wingfield, Esq., late Ensign 60th Foot, to be capt.

Hampshire—Capt. Wm. Chas. Drummond is granted the hon. rank of major. Harvey Combe, gent., to be second lieut.

East Kent—The undermentioned Gents. to be second lieuts.:—Sydney Fraser—Charles Allen Brown.

West Kent—The undermentioned Second Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—Wm. T. Townshend. Walter E. Peel.

1st Royal Lancashire—Lieut. Jas. W. Traill, from the 2nd Royal Cheshire Militia, to be lieut. Alfred S. Rooke, gent., to be sec. lieut.

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7th Royal Lancashire—Capt. Wm. Winniett is granted the hon. rank of major.

Leicestershire—John Harbottle, gent., to be second lieut.

Royal North Lincoln—Robt. W. Bill, gent., to be second lieut.

Royal East Middlesex—Second Lieut. Reginald E. Firminger to be lieut.

2nd Middlesex, or Edmonton Royal Rifle Regiment—Edmund Somerville, gent., to be second lieut.

Montgomery—Capt. Fredck. B. Lane, 53rd Foot, to be adjt., in succession to W. J. Twyford, whose period of service in that appointment has expired; Oct. 1, 1878.

1st or West Norfolk—Hugh V. Bagot, gent., to be second lieut.

Shropshire — Robert Jenkins, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Somerset—Henry E. Taunton-Collins, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Warwick—Sub Lieut. Edwd. Molyneux to be lieut.; April 13, 1877. The undermentioned Sec. Lieuts.:—Robt. C. Money. Haydon D'Aubrey P. Taylor. Quartermaster Thos. Bannister resigns his commission, and is placed upon a retired allowance; also is granted the hon. rank of capt., and is permitted to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement; Oct. 1, 1878. Sergeant-Major Edward Hanworth, from the 1st Battalion 6th Foot, to be quartermaster, in succession to T. Bannister, placed upon a retired allowance; Oct 1, 1878.

Royal Westmoreland—Robt Y. James, gent, to be second lieut.

Worcester—Wm. C. Hanford-Flood, gent., to be second lieut. Sergeant-Major John Moore, from the 36th Foot, to be quartermaster.

North York—Montagu William Bayly, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd West York—Sub Lieut. Francis E. D. Hickman to be lieut.; Feb. 7, 1877. Ellis A. Bartlatt, gent., to be second lieut.

3rd West York—Henry Howard Fullerton, gent., to be second lieut.

Royal Ayr and Wigtown—The undermentioned Second Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—The Hon. Hew Hamilton Dalrymple. Reginald L'Estrange McKerrell. Claud Henry Burnett, gent., to be second lieut.

The Edinburgh or Queen's Regiment of Light Infantry—Robt. J. Lang, gent., to be second lieut.

Highland Borderers Light Infantry—Sub Lieut. the Hon. Ivan Campbell to be lieut.; Jan. 31, 1877.

Royal South Down—Richard Wm. B. Ker, Esq., late Lieut. 1st Dragoons, to be capt.

Fermanagh—Lieut. Edwd. Wm. Walsh resigns his commission.

Londonderry — Quartermaster Chas. Brennan, from the 27th Foot, to be quartermaster.

North Mayo—Capt. David Ruttledge Fair is granted the hon rank of major. Lieut. Edwd. Powell to be capt., vice P. J. Lynch, deceased.

Monaghan—Wm. Atkins, gent., to be second lieut.

North Tipperary—Quartermaster Martin Ryan resigns his commission, and is placed upon a retired allowance; also is granted the hon. rank of capt., and is permitted to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement; Oct. 1, 1878. Quartermaster-Sergeant James Carroll to be quartermaster, in succession to M. Ryan, placed upon a retired allowance; Oct. 1, 1878.

Wexford—Sub Lieut. the Hon. Wm. John French to be lieut.; May 30. 1878, The undermentioned Second Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—Alfred R. Power. Bernard J. G. Richards.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Denbighshire — The Christian name of Capt. and Adjt. Creagh is Walter only, and not as stated in the Gazette of July 16, 1878.

Royal East Kent—Sir John W. Honywood, Bart-, to be second lieut.

Oxfordshire—Lieutenant George Augustus, Viscount Parker, to be capt.

West Somerset—Lieut. Robert

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Neville to be capt., vice V. Stuckey, resigned.

Worcestershire—Lieut. Herbert Hay Langham resigns his commission.

1st West York—The undermentioned Sub Lieuts. to be lieuts.:—Richard H. Jones; July 14, 1875. Frank Mappin; April 29, 1876.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Oct. 22.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Oct. 23, 1878:—

2nd Cheshire Artillery—Sub Lieut. Wm. J. M. Williams to be lieut.

3rd Cheshire Artillery—Sub Lieut. Frederic J. Harrison to be lieut.; Sept. 6, 1876.

4th Cinque Ports Artillery—Hon. Assist.-Surg. Chas. Emmerson resigns his commission.

5th Cornwall Artillery—Acting Surgeon Robert B. Hill resigns his appointment.

6th Dorsetshire Artillery—Jas. Pope, gent., to be second lieut.

3rd Essex Artillery—Capt. and Adjt. Robert D. D. Hay resigns his commission, and to have the hon. rank of major, with permission to wear the uniform of the above-named corps.

2nd Hampshire Artillery—Wm. L. Smith, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

9th Kent Artillery—Alfred H. Rowell, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

2nd Administrative Brigade Lancashire Artillery—Captain and Adjt. Thomas M, Hitchins. Royal Artillery, resigns his uppointment as adjt.

4th Administrative Brigade Lancashire Artillery—Captain R. Coupland, 24th Lancashire Artillery Volunteer Corps, to be major.

1st Lancashire Artillery—Sec. Lieut. Mttthew H. Larmar to be lieut. Second Lieut. Frederick H. Miall to be lieut.

4th Lancashire Artillery—Sec. Lieut. Ernest L. Melly to be lieut. Second Lieut. Wilfrid Jevons to be lieut. Second Lieut. James N. Stolterfoht to be lieut. Second Lieut. Alsager J. Steele to be lieut.

19th Lancashire Artillery—Captain and Adjt. George Morgan is placed on retired pay, and to have the hon. rank of major, with permission to wear the uniform of the above-named corps; Oct. 27, 1878.

24th Lancashire Artillery—Captain Joseph L. Whalley resigns his commission. Lieut. Wm. J. Sly to be capt.

1st Administrative Brigade Monmouthshire Artillery—Capt. Herbert Goldingham, 1st Worcester Artillery Volunteer Corps, to be major.

1st Surrey Artillery—Henry F. Moore, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

1st Sutherland Artillery—Lieut. R. Hill to be capt

1st Worcestershire Artillery—Capt. Herbert Goldingham to be major.

4th East Riding of Yorkshire Artillery—Arthur H. Harrison, Esq,, to be capt.

1st West Riding of Yorkshire Artillery—Sub Lieut. Thomas B. Cumpston to be lieut.; June 2, 1877. Sub Lieut. Thos. Titley to be lieut.; June 16, 1877.

1st Durham Engineers—The resignation of Captain James Wilkinson, which appeared in the Gazette of June 14, 1878, is cancelled.

The Engineer and Railway Transport—Sir John Coode, Knt., to be Lieut Col. Geo. F. Lyster, Esq., to be lieut. col. Geo. Cunningham, Esq., to be lieut. colonel. John Orwell Phillips, Esq., to be major. Chas. J. Lucas, Esq., to be major.

8th Aberdeenshire Rifles—Wm. Booth, gent., to be second lieut. (snper.)

1st Buckinghamshire Rifles—Lieut. Wm. H. Hooper resigns his commission.

2nd Carmarthenshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Sydney E. Chivers resigns his commission.

6th Cheshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Arthur Brassey to be lieut.; Jan. 10, 1877.

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7th Cheshire Rifles—Geo. Garratt, gent., to be lieut.

13th Cheshire Rifles—Lieut. A. Harrison resigns his commission.

17th Cheshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. John G. Johnson, jun., to be lieut.; July 5, 1876.

27th Cheshire Rifles—Second Lieut. Samnel H. Carrington resigns his commission.

21st Cheshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. John Potter to be lieut.; Aug 12, 1876.

11th Cornwall Rifles—Second Lieut. John H. Ferris to be lieut.

19th Cornwall Rifles—Lieut. Reginald P. Baker to be capt.

23rd Derbyshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. John Wood to be lieut.; Jan. 22, 1876. Sub Lieut. John Walton to be lieut.; Jan. 22, 1876. Sub Lieut. Daniel H. Hesslegrave to be lieut.; Jan. 22, 1876.

3rd Durham Rifles—Sub Lieut. Edwd. Wm. Harding to be lieut.; Feb. 10, 1877.

8th Glamorganshire Rifles—W. Bell, Esq., to be capt. Sec. Lieut. John H. Jenkins to be lieut.

14th Glamorganshire Rifles—Second Lieut. Jas. Phillips to be lieut.

8th Herefordshire Rifles—The Rev. Francis L. Izod to be acting-chap.

3rd Lanarkshire Rifles—Lieut. Andrew Masson to be capt.

8th Lancashire Rifles—Captain Henry M. Walker resigns his commission.

5th Lancashire Rifles—Sub Lt. Leonard Kennedy to be lieut.; Nov. 15, 1876.

15th Middlesex—Walter J. Hore, Lord Ruthven, late Capt. Rifle Brigade, to be major.

24th Middlesex Rifles—Second Lieut. Wm. B. Newsom to be lieut. Geo. Jas. Thomason, gent., to be second lieut.

28th Middlesex Rifles—Captain Robert T. Tait resigns his commission, also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the corps on his retirement.

37th Middlesex—Horace Stedall, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

44th Middlesex Rifles—Second Lieut, Wm. S. Cantrell to be lieut.

2nd Monmouthshire Rifles—E. Deacon, gent., to be second lieut. (super.) James W. Green, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

1st Oxfordshire Rifles—Captain James Johnstone, 52nd Regiment, to be adj., vice Jones transferred to the 2nd Administrative Battalion Hampshire Rifle Volunteers; Oct. 10, 1878.

3rd Pembrokeshire Rifles—Lt. Francis Alex. D. Seymour resigns his commission.

7th Perthshire Rifles—Sub Lt. Adam Ogilvie Torry resigns his commission.

11th Perthshire Rifles—Hon. Assist.-Surg. Geo. Park resigns his commission.

2nd Radnorshire Rifles—Hugh V. Thomas, gent., to be lieut. Richard Richardson, gent., to be acting surgeon. The Rev. Thomas Robert J. Laugharne to be acting chap.

3rd Administrative Battalion Somersetshire Rifles—Capt. Bryan Bristow Twyne, 2nd Battalion 13th Foot, to be adjt., vice Thelwall, deceased; Oct. 9, 1878.

6th Somersetshire Rifles—Arthur Bishop Castle, gent., to be second lieut.

31st Staffordshire Rifles—Arthur E. Allen, gent., to be sec. lieut.

7th Surrey Rifles—Captain L. Shuter, whose resignation appeared in the Gazette of Aug. 20, 1878, is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the corps on his retirement.

12th Worcestershire Rifles—The Rev. Frederick W. Holland to be acting chap.

7th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Walter F. Ferns to be lieut.; June 28, 1876.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Oct. 22.

[The following appointment is substituted for that which appeared in the Gazette of May 22, 1878.]

Royal Cumberland Regiment of Militia—Lieut. Joseph H. Sparks to be capt., vice Rossall, promoted.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Oct. 29.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Oct. 30, 1878:—

6th Dragoon Guards—Captain Chas. F. Marriott to be major, vice Brevet Lieut. Col. S. de A. C. Clarke, retired on half-pay; Oct. 5, 1878. Lieut. Thos. C. Porter to be capt., vice C. F. Marriott; Oct. 5, 1878

7th Dragoon Guards—Lieut. Wm. W. Weston to be capt., vice W. Creagh, seconded for service as an adjt. of the Auxiliary Forces; Oct. 2, 1878.

1st Dragoons—Captain Edward Loyd Entwistle resigns his commission.

2nd Dragoons—Lieut. Chas. W. O. Doherty to be capt., vice P. Sanderson, seconded for service as an adjt. of Auxiliary Forces; Oct. 1, 1878.

5th Lancers—Second Lieut. C. Combe, from the 10th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. A. G. Fife, promoted into the 6th Dragoon Guards.

8th Hussars—Capt. Edward E. Lushington, from 11th Hussars, to be capt., vice E. H. Green, who exchanges.

11th Hussars—Capt. Edward H. Green, from the 8th Hussars, to be capt., vice E. E. Lushington who exchanges.

12th Lancers—Lieut. George Pearson, from the Royal Bucks Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. E. M. Mansel-Pleydell, promoted.

16th Lancers—Sub Lieut. John G. A. Baird to be lieut.; Sept. 15, 1877, but his commission as Lieut. in the Army to bear date Feb. 12, 1877.

Grenadier Guards—Lieut Reginald W. Chandos-Pole resigns his commission.

Coldtsream Guards—Lieut. and Capt. Amelius R. M. Lockwood to be capt. and lieut. col., vice R. C. Goff, retired on a pension; Oct. 5, 1878.

Scots Guards—Surgeon Thomas J. Peatfield retires on temporary half-pay.

3rd Foot—Sub Lieut. Alfred J. W. Allen to be lieut.; Feb. 12, 1876.

4th Foot—Lieut. Malby E. Crofton to be adjt., vice Lieut. E. H. Fitzherbert, promoted; Oct. 5, 1878.

5th Foot—Lieut. Henry Hanbury Davies retires from the Service, receiving the value of an ensigncy.

6th Foot—Lieut. Richard Meredith to be capt., vice G. R. Gibbs, seconded for service as an adjt. of the Auxiliary Forces; Oct. 1, 1878.

8th Foot—Lieut. Arthur Henry Cope to be capt., vice T. G. Crawley. seconded for service as an adjt. of the Auxiliary Forces; Sept. 24, 1878.

10th Foot—Sub Lieut. Charles Russell to be lieut.; Sept. 10, 1878.

13th Foot—Capt. Andrew Chas. Cunningham retires on a pension, Lieut. Anthony Lumb to be adjt., vice Lieut. A. C. Borton, who has resigned that appointment; April 3, 1878.

14th Foot—Lieut. Wm. Selwood Hewett, has been appointed a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps

15th Foot—Lieut. Wm. Henry Rushbrook is seconded for service as a lieut. instructor at the School of Musketry; Aug. 1, 1878.

16th Foot—Lieut. Edgar Wm. Robertson resigns his commission.

19th Foot—Lieut. Wm. Auschar Chauncy, from the Royal North Gloucester Militia, to be second lieut., vice A. H. Dobbs, transferred to the 43rd Foot.

20th Foot—Lieut. Robert C. Paull to be capt., vice M. C. Gahan, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Oct. 5, 1878. Lieut. John Mack retires from the Service, receiving the value of an ensigncy.

23rd Foot—Sub Lieut. Wm. B. Roberts to be lieut.; Sept. 10, 1876.

24th Foot—Sub Lieut. Courtney Vor Trower to be lieut.; May 17, 1877.

25th Foot—Lieut. Adrian Henry Hope to be capt., vice S. R. B. Partridge, seconded for service as

Deputy Governor of the Prison, Portsmouth; Oct. 3, 1878.

27th Foot—Sub Lieut. Reginald H. Cholmondeley to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1876.

33rd Foot—Second Lieut. Wm. H. D. Rich, from the 108th Foot, to be second lieut., vice H. M. Twynam, transferred to the 59th Foot. Lieut. Frank W. Eagar, from the Royal Bucks Militia, to be second lieut., vice F. P. F. Wood, transferred to the 7th Foot.

37th Foot—Sub Lieut. Wm. H. Hand to be lieut.: Sept. 11, 1876.

42nd Foot—Lieut. Nicholas W. P. Brophy to be capt., vice G. T. C. Moore, retired on a pension; Oct. 5, 1878.

49th Foot—Lieut. Colonel and Brevet Col. Chas. FitzGerald, having served five years as a Regimental Lieut. Col., is placed on half-pay.

50th Foot—Lieut. Frederick F. Johnson to be adjt., vice Lieut. E. J. Robinson, promoted; Oct. 5, 1878.

56th Foot—Second Lieut. Henry Slane Fleming, from the 35th Foot. to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. H. P. Molineux, promoted.

57th Foot—Lieut. Arthur N. Hayne to be capt., vice G. C. Denton, retired; Oct. 5, 1878. Lieut. Gordon Dewar to be capt., vice A. N. Hayne, seconded for service on the Staff.

58th Foot—Lieut. Henry M. Nuthall to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. R. L. Arathoon, promoted: Sept. 14, 1878.

59th Foot—Second Lieut. Humphrey M. Twynam, from the 33rd Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. W. P. Lawlor, promoted.

60th Foot—Capt. Wm. John E. Poole retires on a pension.

80th Foot—Sergeant-Major Jas. Pendery to be quartermaster, vice J. Belt, deceased.

83rd Foot—Lieut. Granville H. J. Alexander resigns his commission.

84th Foot—Lieut. Frederic P. Lousada to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. J. Lepperd, retired on a pension; Oct 3, 1878

23rd Foot—Super. Capt. Alex. H. Haldane to be capt., vice J. A. MacVicar, retired; Oct. 5, 1878. Lieut. the Hon. Wm. FitzWilliam Elliott to be capt., vice W. F. Fullarton, retired on a pension: Oct. 19, 1878.

98th Foot—Lieut. Cecil Digby H. Fetherstonhaugh, from the 3rd (King's Own) Stafford Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. E. T. B. Sparks, promoted.

108th Foot—The surname of the Lieut. from the 1st Royal Surrey Militia, appointed Second Lieut. in the Gazette of Oct. 4, 1878, is Rich, and not Rick as therein stated.

199th Foot—Lieut. Robt. P. Simpson is seconded for service as a Lieut. Instructor at the School of Musketry; Oct. 1, 1878. Quartermaster Samuel S. Elson retires on half-pay.

Rifle Brigade.

Lieut. Fredk. C. Howard to be capt., vice J L. Tufnell-Tyrell, retired; Oct. 5, 1878.

Commissariat and Transport Department.

Commissary Edwd. L. Ward has been granted retired pay from Oct. 1, 1878, on reorganisation of the Department.

Army Pay Department.

The undermentioned Officers having resigned their commissions as combatant officers, to be paymasters with the hon. rank of capt. in the Army, from the dates stated against their respective names, such antedates not to carry back pay prior to Oct. 30, 1878:—Capt. Thos. C. Rose, from the 21st Foot; April 1, 1878. Capt. Charles F. Carey, from the 54th Foot; June 3, 1878. Capt. Baldwin K. Whiteford, from the 20th Foot; June 11, 1878.

Medical Department.

Surg. John A. Campbell, from half-pay, to be surg.; Oct. 1, 1878. Surg. W. Sharpe, M.D., retires upon temporary half-pay; Oct. 6, 1878. The undermentioned Surgs. to be surgs.-major, dated Oct. 2, 1878:—William Alexander, M.D., Wm. M. Harman, M.B., Sandford

Moore, M.D., Geo. J. Gibson, M.D., James Williamson, M.B., Wm. H. Steele, M.D., Napoleon B. Major, Alfred H. Ratigan, Henry Cornish, J. Fitzmaurice, James Macartney, M.D., Wm. Lougheed.

Veterinary Department.

The undermentioned Gents. to be vet. surgeons on probation:—Thos. A. Killick, and John Burke Savage.

Brevet.

Lieut.-Gen. Arnold C. Errington, on the Retired List, Colonel of the 85th Foot, to be gen.: Aug. 10, 1878.

Lieut. Col. Jas. R. S. Henderson, Madras Staff Corps, to be col.: June 30, 1878.

Lieut. Col. Benjamin B. Herrick, Second Com. Royal Marine Light Infantry, to be col.: Sept. 18, 1878.

Capt. Wm. J. E. Poole, 60th Foot, to have the hon. rank of maj. upon retiring on a pension.

Capt. Andrew C. Cunningham, 13th Foot, to have the hon. rank of maj. upon retiring on a pension.

Quartermaster Samuel S. Elson, 109th Foot, to have the hon. rank of capt. upon retiring on half-pay.

Apothecary Henry C. Connolly to have the hon. and local rank of surg. in the East Indies on retirement from the Bengal Medical Establishment.

The following alteration of dates of commissions. and promotions to take place consequent on the removal to the Retired List, on Aug. 15, 1878, of General Henry Blois Turner, Royal (late Bombay) Engineers:—

The commissions of the undermentioned Lieut. Cols. to be antedated as specified against their names:—Frederick Pocklington, Major, 5th Foot; Aug. 15, 1878. Wm. Starke, Major, 15th Foot; Aug. 20, 1878. William Stevens, Capt., half-pay, late 2nd Foot; Aug. 23, 1878. St. John Willan's, Major, 36th Foot; Aug. 24, 1878.

Capt. and Brevet Major John S. Cannon, half-pay, Gold Coast Artillery Corps, Staff Officer of Pensioners, to be lieut. col.: Aug. 29, 1878.

The commissions of the undermentioned Majors to be antedated as specified against their names:—Chas. P. Forbes. Capt., 109th Foot; Aug. 15, 1878. Robert J. Watson, Capt., 29th Foot: Aug. 20, 1878. Walter C. Mackinnon, Capt., 3rd Foot; Aug. 23, 1878. Walter F. Blake, Capt., 4th Foot; Aug. 24, 1878.

Capt. Russel Skinner, 37th Foot, to be major; Aug. 29, 1878.

The following promotions to take place in succession to Lieut.-Gen. R. King Clavell, Royal Marines, deceased:—Major Thos. P. Cosby, 14th Foot, to be lieut. col.,; Sept. 2, 1878. Capt. Joseph Wm. Fitzgerald, 3rd Dragoon Guards, to be major; Sept. 2, 1878.

The following promotions to take place in succession to Gen. Henry H. Graham, C.B., Col. of the 77th Foot, placed on the Retired List of Sept. 16, 1878, under the provisions of Article 138 of the Royal Warrant of May 1, 1878:—Lieut. Gen. Wm. M. Wood, Col. of the 67th Foot, to be gen.; Sept. 16, 1878. Major-Gen. John A. Cole to be lieut.-gen.: Sept. 16, 1878. Brevet Col. Wm. C. Trevor, C.B., from Lieut. Col., half-pay, late 54th Foot. serving as a Brigadier-Gen. on the Staff in India, to be major-gen.; Sept. 16, 1878. Major Chas. C. Grantham, 89th Foot, to be lieut. col.; Sept. 16, 1878. Capt. Wm. A. Nash, 4th Foot, to be major; Sept. 16, 1878.

The following promotions to take place in succession to General Sir Thos. M. Biddulph, K.C.B., who died on Sept. 28, 1878:—Lieut.-Gen. Henry Smyth, C.B., Col. of the 2nd Foot, to be gen.: Sept. 29, 1878. Major-Gen. Richard W. Lacy to be lieut.-gen.: Sept. 29, 1878. Brevet Col. Edward Burgoyne Cureton, from Lieut. Col. Brigade Depot, to be major-gen.; Sept. 29, 1878. Major Philip Gibaut, half-pay, late 73rd Foot, to be lieut. col.; Sept. 29, 1878. Capt. Ebenezer Rogers, half-pay, late 3rd West India Regiment, Staff Officer of Pensioners, to be major: Sept. 29, 1878.

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The following promotion to take

place in succession to Lieut.-Gen. Sir Wm. S. R. Norcott, Col. of the 47th Foot, placed on the Retired List on Oct. 1, 1878, under the provisions of Article 138 of the Royal Warrant of May 1, 1878:—Major-Gen. F. Francis Maude, V.C., C.B., serving as a Major-Gen. on the Staff in India, to be lieut.-gen.: Oct. 1, 1878.

Lieut.-Gen. Wm. R. Preston is placed on the Retired List from Oct. 1, 1878, under the provisions of the Royal Warrant of May 1, 1878.

The following promotions to take place in succession to Major-Gen. Henry Bingham, who died on Oct. 1, 1878:—Brevet Col. Sir John C. McLeod, K.C.B., from Lieut.-Col., half-pay, late 42nd Foot, serving as Assist. Adjt. and Quartermaster Gen., North British District, to be major-gen.; Oct. 2, 1878. Capt. and Brevet Major Henry Miller, half-pay, late Military Train, Staff Officer of Pensioners, to be lieut. col.; Oct. 2, 1878. Capt. Wm. Bannatyne, 8th Foot, to be major; Oct. 2, 1878.

Memoranda.

The retirement from the Service, receiving the value of his commission, of Capt. and Brevet Major Gen. J. Teevan, half-pay, late 94th Foot, to be dated Sept. 14, 1878, instead of July 20, 1878, as stated in the Gazette of Aug. 6, 1878.

Quartermaster and Hon. Capt. Wm. Simpson half-pay, late 79th Foot, has been permitted to commute his retired allowance; Oct. 10, 1878.

Surg. William Wakefield, M.D., half-pay, Medical Department, has been permitted to commute his retired allowance: Oct. 10, 1878.

The undermentioned Officers retire from the Service, receiving the value of their commissions:—Capt. and Brevet Lieut. Col. Hickman R. Russell, half-pay, late 57th Foot; Oct. 12, 1878. Captain Temple L. Phipson-Wybrants, half-pay, late 75th Foot; Oct. 12, 1878.

India Office, Oct. 31.

Her Majesty has been pleased to approve of the following admissions to her Majesty's Indian Staff Corps, made by the Governments in India:—

BENGAL STAFF CORPS.

To be Lieuts.—Lieut. Wm. Lambert, 70th Foot; Nov. 12. 1873. Lieut. Archibald Ross Murray, 9th Foot; April 15, 1874. Lieut. Chas. H. Westmorland, 65th Foot; Sept. 21, 1874.

MADRAS STAFF CORPS.

To be Lieut.—Lieut. Geo. P. M. Prichard, 56th Foot; Aug. 9, 1875.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 1.

Where not otherwise specified. the following commissions bear date Nov. 2, 1878:—

Memorandum.

The Queen has been graciously pleased to approve of a corps of Engineer Militia being formed and raised at Portsmouth, with the designation "Engineer Militia, Portsmouth, Submarine Miners;" Oct. 31, 1878.

Artillery.

Royal Lancashire—J. Caister, gent., to be second lieut.

Infantry.

2nd Royal Cheshire—George F. Christian, gent., to be second lieut.

West Essex—Lieut. Henry L. Beckett resigns his commission. Francis M. H. Sandford, gent., to be second lieut.

Hampshire—Wm. C. Hawker, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Royal Lancashire—Lieut. Francis E. G. Astley. from the Royal North Lincoln Militia, to be lieut.

Royal East Middlesex—Lieut. Ernest Jas. H. Appleyard to be capt.

West Suffolk—Lieut. Col. Wm. Julius Marshall is granted the hon. rank of col.

Worcester—Francis P. Vane to be second lieut.

The Royal Aberdeenshire Highlanders—The Hon. Ion Grant N. Keith-Falconer to be second lieut.

The Highland Rifle Militia—Sub

Lieut. Wm. Stirling to be lieut.; Feb. 17, 1877. Sub Lieut. Alan Mackenzie to be lieut.

Royal North Down—Lionel T. V. Wilkinson, gent., to be second lieut.

Royal Dublin City—Francis S. Picet, gent., to be second lieut.

Roscommon—Lieut. Henry M. FitzGibbon to be capt., vice J. Irvin, deceased.

Wexford—The promotion of Sub Lieut. the Hon. William J. French to the rank of lieut., to bear date May 30, 1877, and not May 30, 1878, as stated in the Gazette of Oct. 22, 1878.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Denbighshire—Major Conwy G. H. R. Conwy resigns his commission.

Hampshire—Lieut. Arthur H. Grant resigns his commission.

Pembroke—Lieutenant Charles Mathias to be capt.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 1.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date, Nov. 2, 1878:—

1st Durham Artillery—Sub Lt. Chas. D. Doxforn to be capt.

1st Edinburgh Artillery—Sub Lieut. John W. Barrie to be lieut.; Dec. 1, 1875. Sub Lieut. Charles T. Menzies to be lieut.; Jan. 24, 1877. Sub Lieut, James J. Marsh to be lieut.; Jan. 31, 1877.

3rd Essex Artillery—Capt. Augustus J. Hill, Royal Marine Artillery, from Adjt. 4th West Riding Yorkshire Artillery Volunteer Corps, to be adjt.; Nov. 1, 1878.

4th Lancashire Artillery—Geo. H. Melly, gent., to be second lieut.

21st Lancashire Artillery—Sec. Lieut. Wm. H. Hunt to be captain. Second Lieut. Chas. J. Trimble to be capt.

1st Worcestershire Artillery—Act. Surg. Stanley L. Haynes to be surg. Geo. W. Crowe, gent., to be act. surg.

4th East Riding of Yorkshire Artillery—John Yates, Esq., late Capt. and Adjt., to have the hon. rank of major, with permission to wear the uniform of the above-named corps.

9th Ayrshire Rifles—Lieut. Jas. A. Faulds resigns his commission.

1st Berkshire Rifles—Second Lieut. Stuart Campbell, resigns his commission.

31st Cheshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Edwd. Alcock to be lieut. Oct. 20, 1875.

17th Cornwall Rifles—Lieut. Thurston C. Peter resigns his commission.

1st Administrative Battalion Essex Rifles—The Rev. Francis B. Sheppard to be act. chap.

5th Hertfordshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Geo. R. Heneage resigns his commission.

1st Administrative Battalion Inverness-shire Rifles—John Simpson, M.D., to be act. surg.

4th Lancashire Rifles—Sub Lt. Geo. Hardman to be lieut.: March 15, 1876.

5th Lancashire Rifles—Second Lieut. Super. Geo. W. Gass resigns his commission.

15th Lancashire Rifles—John R. R. Pennington, gent., to be second lieut. (super.); Oct. 31, 1878.

17th Lancashire Rifles—Second Lieut. (Super.) Richard Thomas Sutcliffe resigns his commission. Second Lieut. (Super.) Frederic C. Sutcliffe resigns his commission.

5th Leicestershire Rifles—The second Christian name of Captain Ellis is Guy and not Grey as stated in the Gazette of Oct. 11, 1878.

1st London Rifles—Surgeon Claudius M. Miller, whose resignation appeared in the Gazette of July 16, 1878, is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the corps on his retirement.

20th Middlesex Rifles—Wm. P. Lindsay, gent., to be second lieut.

26th Middlesex Rifles—Second Lieut. John Allison Z. Allison resigns his commission.

3rd Monmouthshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. (Super.) Jonathan Piggford resigns his commission.

1st Newcastle-on-Tyne Rifles—Jas. W. Wood, gent., to be second lieut.

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3rd Northamptonshire Rifles—Thos. Phipps Dorman, gent., to be second lieut. Wm. H. Turner, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Oxfordshire Rifles—Captain Chas. V. P. Keene resigns his commission.

34th Staffordshire Rifles—Davin Rigby, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Warwickshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Henry Wm. Carter to be lieut.; March 8, 1876. Sub Lieut. John Wilkes, jun., to be lieut.; Aug. 2, 1876. Sub Lieut. Alfred H. Atkin to be lieut.; Dec. 20, 1876. Sub Lieut. John Deeley, jun., to be lieut.; April 4, 1877. Sub Lieut, Wm. F. Allcock to be lieut.; June 9, 1877. Sub Lieut. Wm. Tonks to be lieut. June 9, 1877. Sub Lieut. Henry S. Ludlow to be lieut.; June 9, 1877. Sub Lieut. Chas. R. Bur to be lieut.; June 23, 1877.

34th West Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Wm. E. Bailey to be capt. Sub Lieut. Fearnes E. A. Lawton to be capt. Lieut. John Higson to be capt.

5th East Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Wm. A. Taite to be lieut.; April 25, 1877.

9th East Riding of Yorkshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Thos. J. Jefferson to be lieut.: May 16, 1877.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 5.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Nov. 6, 1878:—

Brigade Depot.

Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Thos. F. Lloyd, from half-pay, late 98th Foot, to be lieut. col., vice Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Edward B Cureton, about to be promoted major-gen.; Nov. 6, 1878.

Staff.

Lieut. Col. Thos. E. Hughes, Royal (late Bengal) Artillery, to be assist. adjt.-gen. of the Royal Artillery at headquarters, vice Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Wm. Tod Brown, C.B., Royal (late Bengal) Artillery, retired upon a pension; Oct. 16, 1878.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 5.

5th Lancashire Rifles—The date of the resignation of Second Lieut. (Super) Geo. W. Gass should have been Oct. 31, 1878, and not as stated in the Gazette of Nov. 1, 1878.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 8.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Nov. 9, 1878:—

Commissariat and Transport Department.

Deputy Com. Fredk. W. Page has been granted retired pay from Nov. 1, 1878, on reorganisation of the Department.

Ordnance Store Department.

Deputy Com. Edwin Nicholl has been granted retired pay from Nov. 1, 1878, on reorganisation of the Department.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 8.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Nov. 9, 1878:—

Artillery.

Suffolk—Paymaster Frederick Barlow resigns his commission, also is granted the hon. rank of major, and is permitted to continue to wear the uniform of the Regiment on his retirement.

Infantry.

Bedford—Wm. H. Astell, gent., to be second lieut.

Royal Bucks—John H. C. Fane gent., to be second lieut.

Royal Carnarvon—Sub Lieut. Owen Lloyd J. Evans to be lieut.; Feb. 7, 1877.

Hereford—Wm. J. Todd, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd Royal Surrey—Capel M. Brunker, gent., to be second lieut.

6th West York—Sub Lieut. Frank J. N. Maitland to be lieut.; March 3, 1877.

Royal Ayr and Wigtown—Maj. Alex. McLachlan is granted the hon. rank of lieut. col.

The Highland Light Infantry—Quartermaster Peter Forbes, from

the 71st Foot, to be quartermaster.

Royal Perth—Jas. S. Robertson, gent., to be second lieut.

North Cork—Capt. Noble Wm. Johnson resigns his commission.

Royal Dublin City—Michael C. Hackett, gent., to be second lieut.

North Tiperary—Capt. Wm. H. Herbert 18th Foot, to be adjt., in succession to Major Hugh Shaw, V.C., 18th Foot, whose period of service in that appointment has expired.

Wexford—Sec. Lieut. the Hon. Edward B. L. H. Stopford to be lieut.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Gloncestershire—Capt. G. E. L. Baker, resigns his commission, also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement.

Hampshire—Sub Lieut. William Woods to be lieut.; Jan. 10, 1877.

West Kent—Sub Lieut. Wm. A. Smith-Masters to be lieut.; Aug. 16, 1876.

Montgomeryshire—Captain and Brevet Major Geo. C. Huddleston. 13th Hussars to be capt. (super.)

Oxfordshire—Robt. T. Hodge, gent., to be second lieut. Captain John F. Chapman, 7th Dragoon Guards, to be adjt., in succession to Brevet Major the Hon. H. J. L. Wood, appointed deputy assist. adjt.-gen. on the Staff of the Lieut. Gen. Commanding the troops at Cyprus; Oct. 23, 1878.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 8.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Nov. 9, 1878:—

1st Durham Artillery—Second Lieut. John W. Campbell to be lieut.

4th Lancashire Artillery— Oswald H. Rathbone, gent., to be second lieut.

3rd Middlesex Artillery—Sub Lieut. John C. Needes resigns his commission.

1st Administrative Brigade Monmouthshire Artillery—Chas. Lyne, Esq., to be hon. col.

1st Sussex Artillery—James W. Stride, jun., gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

4th East Riding of Yorkshire Artillery—Lieut. Wm. Downes resigns his commission; Oct. 28, 1878. Lieut. Henry H. Briggs resigns his commission; Oct. 28, 1878. Lieut. John W. Baxter resigns his commission; Oct. 28, 1878.

1st Gloucestershire Engineers—Lieut. Herbert T. F. Irwin, from the 2nd Gloucestershire Engineer Volunteer Corps, to be capt.

1st Middlesex Engineers—The Christian names of Lieut. Palmer are Tom John, and not as stated in the Gazette of Oct. 11, 1878.

6th Aberdeenshire Rifles—Lt. Jas. M. Pirie resigns his commission.

8th Argyllshire Rifles—Hon. Chap. the Rev. Jas. McArthur resigns his commission.

1st Berkshire Rifles—Lothian Geo. B. Carter, gent,, to be second lieut. (super.)

5th Carmarthenshire Rifles—The Rev. Stephen W. Jenkins to be act. chap.

16th Cornwall Rifles—Roger Kendall, gent., to be second lieut.

8th Derbyshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Samuel Coleman resigns his commission.

9th Essex Rifles—Sub Lieut. Alfred Ewin resigns his commission.

13th Glamorganshire Rifles—Fredk. Wm. Thomas, gent., to be lieut.

14th Glamorganshire Rifles—Wm. D. Williams, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

16th Glamorganshire Rifles—Lieut. Geo. C. Downing resigns his commission.

20th Glamorganshire Rifles—Wm. P. Powell, gent., to be lieut.

4th Isle of Wight Rifles—Sub Lieut. Alfred J. Pound to be lieut.; April 18, 1878.

107th Lanarkshire Rifles—Joseph Gill, gent., to be second lieut. The Rev. Jas. Symington to be act. chap.

6th Lancashire Rifles—Surgeon Francis H. Walmsley resigns his

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commission.

1st Administrative Battalion Lincolnshire Rifles—Hon. Chap. the Rev. Edmund R. Larken resigns his commission.

2nd London Rifles—Chas. V. P. Keene, gent., to be lieut.

20th Middlesex Rifles—Captain Roderick Bennetts resigns his commission, also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the Corps on his retirement.

38th Middlesex Rifles—Lieut. Chas. G. Vinall resigns his commission.

39th Middlesex Rifles—Lieut. Walter E. Messenger to be capt.

46th Middlesex Rifles—Lieut. Richard Simkin to be capt. Sub Lieut. Perceval L. Hall to be lieut. Dated March 7, 1878.

1st Norfolk Rifles—Lieut. Chas. Morgan resigns his commission.

1st Administrative Battalion Northumberland Rifles—The appointment of Edmund Garvie, gent., to be quartermaster, which appeared in the Gazette of July 16, 1878, should have been to the above Battalion instead of the 1st Administrative Battalion Durham Rifle Volunteers.

8th Nottinghamshire Rifles—Second Lieut. Herbert G. Horn resigns his commission.

27th Somersetshire Rifles—Lt. Benjamin E. Somer resigns his commission.

26th Surrey Rifles—Lieut. Chas. E. White resigns his commission.

1st Administrative Battalion Westmoreland Rifles — Captain Samuel Gawith, 3rd Westmoreland Rifle Volunteer Corps, to be major.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 12.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Nov. 13, 1878:—

2nd Regiment of Dragoon Guards—Sub Lieut. John Cecil de Veel Tattersall to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1876. Second Lieut. Cuthbert P. Dawson to be lieut., vice F. E. A. Wollaston, resigned; July 13, 1878.

5th Dragoon Guards—Second Lieut. the Hon. Kenelm D. St. Lawrence to be lieut., vice M. Bowers, promoted; Aug. 21, 1878.

1st Dragoons—Second Lieut. Cecil Digby H. Fetherstonhaugh, from the 98th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. A. Gwynne, resigned.

2nd Dragoons—Second Lieut. Jas. C. Hamilton, from the 5th Dragoon Guards, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. C. W. O. Doherty, promoted.

8th Hussars—Sub Lieut. Wm. K. Mitford to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1877.

13th Hussars—Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. John Miller, having served five years as Regimental Lieut. Col., is placed on half-pay.

16th Lancers—Lieut. John M. Evetts to be captain, vice H. A. Robinson, retired; Oct. 19, 1878.

18th Hussars—Lieut. Francis D. Tagart to be adjt., vice Lieut. R. Knox, promoted; April 13, 1878.

20th Hussars—Lieut. Edward Richmond, from the 2nd or North Durham Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. W. C. Lloyd, promoted.

Cavalry Depot—Lieut. the Hon. Eustace Vesey, 9th Lancers, to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. S. J. Lea, 3rd Hussars, who has relinquished that appointment, having been placed under orders to proceed to India; Oct. 1, 1878.

Grenadier Guards—Lieut. Gilbert Legh, from the Royal Sussex Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. R. W. Chandos-Pole, resigned.

Coldstream Guards—Sub Lieut. Theophilus B. P. Levett to be lieut.; Oct. 28, 1878. Lieut. the Hon. Arthur G. Fortescue, from the Devon Artillery Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. and Capt. A. R. M. Lockwood, promoted.

Scots Guards—Sub Lieutenant Clarence G. Sinclair to be lieut; Sept. 11, 1877. Sub Lieut. Edwd. Watkin W. Wynn to be lieut. Dated Oct. 31, 1878, but his commission as Lieut. in the Army to bear date Sept. 11, 1877.

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1st Foot—Capt. Wm. B. Baker retires from the Service, receiving the value of his commission. Sec. Lieut. Thos. R. Scarlett to be lieut., vice H. Bond, resigned; June 29, 1878, Second Lieutenant David Fitz-Ameline R. Ancketill to be lieut., vice A. W. Mitchell, deceased; Sept. 19, 1878. Second Lieut. Archibald McLachlan to be lieut., vice H. Gardner, promoted; Sept. 25, 1878.

6th Foot—Lieutenant Gregory Haines has been seconded for service on the Staff; Oct 17, 1878.

10th Foot—Major and Brevet Lieut. Col. Chas. Hudson retires from the Service, receiving a gratuity. Second Lieut. Henry B. Mainwaring to be lieut., vice G. H. Singer. promoted; Aug. 21, 1878. Second Lieut. Wm. C. W. Rawlinson to be lieut., vice T. G. Booth, promoted; Aug. 31, 1878.

12th Foot—Lieut. Harry E. S. Pocklington, from the 2nd Royal Surrey Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. J. J. F. Irwin, promoted.

14th Foot—Lieut. Charles Jas. Orr has been appointed a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps; June 28, 1878. Lieut. John H. Burke, from the 53rd Foot, to be Lieut., vice Henry Fenning, who exchanges. Quartermaster Wm. King from the 62nd Foot, to be quartermaster, vice J. Moore, who exchanges.

15th Foot—Second Lieut. Edmd. A. Ogle, to be lieut., vice W. St. L. Chase, appointed a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps; May 31, 1878.

16th Foot—Sub Lieut. John A. Wyllie, a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps, to be lieut.; Sept. 10, 1876.

17th Foot—Second Lieut. Benjamin G. Humfrey, from the 18th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. F. F. Parkinson, promoted.

19th Foot—Second Lieut. Edwd. J. B. Buckle to be lieut., vice H. L. Gipps, promoted; Nov. 24, 1877. Second Lieut. Thomas D. Kirkpatrick to be lieut., vice A. J. Paterson, promoted; Jan. 1, 1878. Second Lieut. Jas. Ahmuty Fearon to be lieut., vice C. Barton, promoted; Jan. 23, 1878. Second Lieut. Reginald Hayes-Sadler to be lieut., vice W. G. W. McClintock, promoted; March 13, 1878. Second Lieut. Edwd. W. Mills to be lieut., vice G. E. Langford, promoted; July 13, 1878. Second Lieut. Chas. S. Molony to be lieut., vice W. A. Burnett, promoted; July 24, 1878. Second Lieutenant Edwd. R. Jacson is superseded for absence without leave.

20th Foot—The restoration to full-pay, dated Oct. 5, 1878, of Capt. Geo. S. Byng, from half-pay, late Rifle Brigade, is cancelled.

22nd Foot—The following notification which appeared in the Gazette of Oct 18, 1878, is cancelled:—Lieut. Thos. E. G. Molyneux is seconded for service on the Staff: Nov. 13, 1878. Super. Lieut. Alexander B. Mein, who has resigned his appointment as a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps, to be lieut., vice T. E. G. Molyneux, promoted: Oct. 1878.

27th Foot—Second Lieut. Wm. Windrum to be quartermaster, vice C. Brennan, transferred to the Londonderry Militia.

29th Foot—Lieut. William S. Clarke to be adjt., vice Lieut. E. J. H. Spratt, promoted. Lieut. Chas. P. Cubitt to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieutenant W. S. Clarke, appointed adjt.

38th Foot—Sub Lieut. Chas. H. Wylly to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1878.

44th Foot—Second Lieut. Wm. L. Boswell, from the 61st Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. S. Churchill, promoted. Second Lieut. Alex. C. O'Donnell, from the 13th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. P. Edgcumbe, promoted.

51st Foot—Lieut. Jas. S. Cave-Brown-Cave, from the Royal South Gloucester Militia, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. Edmd. W. St. Geo. Welchman, a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps.

53rd Foot—Lieut. Henry Fenning, from the 14th Foot, to be

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Lieut., vice J. H. Burke. who exchanges.

59th Foot—Sub Lieut. Geo. C. Atkinson, a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps, to be lieut.; Oct. 28, 1877.

60th Foot—Lieut. North More-Nisbitt resigns his commission.

62nd Foot—Sub Lieut. Geo. F. Watson, a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps, to be lieut.; Jan. 17, 1878, but his commission as Lieut. in the Army to bear date Oct. 28, 1876. Quartermaster John Moore, from the 14th Foot, to be quartermaster, vice W. King, who exchanges.

65th Foot—Sub Lieut. Algernon H. Wilmer, a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps, to be lieut.; Oct. 6, 1876.

71st Foot—Lieut. Herbert B. Turnor retires from the Service, receiving the value of his commission.

83rd Foot—Lieut. Folliott S. F. Stokes to be captain, vice T. F. Gibbe, retired; Oct. 19, 1878. Lieut. Herbert Mansfield has been appointed a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps: July 5, 1878.

85th Foot—Sub Lieut. Fredck. C. N. Knox to be lieut.; June 24, 1877.

90th Foot—Lieut. Colonel and Brevet Col. Henry W. Palmer retires on full-pay. Lieut. Henry de Courcy Rawlins to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. G. Sandham, promoted; Jan. 23, 1878.

95th Foot—Sub Lieut. Harold C. Wylly to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1878. Sub Lieut. Francis C. Godley to be lieut.; Sept. 11, 1878.

96th Foot—The restoration to full-pay, dated Oct. 5, 1878, of Capt. and Brevet Maj. Maxwell W. Hyslop, from half-pay, late 93rd Foot, is cancelled.

97th Foot—Sub Lieut. Cholmeley Edwd. C. B. Harrison to be lieut.: Sept. 11, 1876.

103rd Foot—Lieut. Henry H. F. Pidcock to be captain, vice E. L. Pelly-Clarke, seconded for service on the Staff; Oct. 1, 1878. Lieut. Skeffington J. Wynne, to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. M. J. Hickley, promoted; Oct. 11, 1878.

104th Foot—Second Lieut. Wm. C. Godfrey, from the 6th Foot, to be second lieut., in succession to Lieut. A. E. W. Goldsmid, promoted.

107th Foot—Lieut. Chas. S. Kincaid, from the Duke of Connaught's Own Sligo Artillery Militia, to be second lieut., vice A. M. Boisragon, transferred to the 18th Foot.

108th Foot—Lieut. Geo. O'Neil Segrave, from the 2nd Royal Lancashire Militia, to be second lieut., vice C. G. B. Saunders, transferred to the 26th Foot.

109th Foot—Lieut. Thomas V. Shepherd to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. R. P. Simpson, appointed a lieut. instructor at the School of Musketry; July 1, 1878.

Rifle Brigade—Lieut. P. Burn to be instructor of musketry, vice Lieut. W. J. Lindsay, promoted; Oct. 6, 1878.

Royal Malta Fencible Artillery—Achilles F. P. M. J. A. F. X. Sammut, gent., to be second lieut. with local and temporary rank, in succession to Lieut. with local and temporary rank W. Sciortino, promoted.

Army Pay Department.

The undermentioned Officers having resigned their commissions as Combatant Officers, to be paymasters, with the hon rank of capt. in the Army, from the dates stated against their respective names, such antedate not to carry back pay prior to Nov. 13, 1878:—Capt. Wm. H. Mortimer, from the 41st Foot; April 1, 1871. Capt. Wm. D. Caudwell, from the 91st Foot; July 8, 1878.

Brevet.

Lieut. Col. and Brevet Colonel Augustus W. Murray, C.B., half-pay, late 1st West India Regiment, serving as a Col. on the Staff, Mauritius, to be maj.-gen.; March 1, 1870, such antedate not to carry back pay prior to Oct. 1, 1877.

Lieut. Colonel and Brevet Col. Henry W. Palmer, 90th Foot, to have the hon. rank of major-gen., upon retiring on full-pay.

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Capt. Ringrose D. Tully, retired, Royal Marine Light Infantry, to have the hon. rank of maj.; Oct. 19, 1878.

Senior Apothecary A. R. Menasse, Hyderabad Contingent, to have the hon. and local rank of surg. in the East Indies.

The undermentioned Officers to be cols.:—Lieut. Col. John W. W. Osborne, C.B., Madras Staff Corps; April 2, 1877. Lieut. Col. Wm. T. Fagan, Bengal Staff Corps; July 28, 1878. Lieut. Col. Richard C. A. Marshall, Madras Staff Corps; Aug. 20, 1878. Lt. Col. Alex. R. McMahon, Madras Staff Corps; Aug. 20, 1878. Lieut. Col. Thos. W. Stansfeld, Madras Staff Corps; Aug. 21, 1878. Lt. Col. Adam H. M. Dickey, Madras Staff Corps; Aug. 21, 1878. Lieut. Col. Geo. B. Heasty, Second Com. Royal Marine Light Infantry; Oct. 17, 1878. Lieut. Col. Robert J. Hughes, 63rd Foot; Oct. 18, 1878. Lieut. Col. Robt. R. Gillespie, half-pay, late 106th Foot, Assist. Adjt. and Quartermaster-Gen. Northern District; Oct. 22, 1878.

The undermentioned Officers to have a step of hon. rank on retirement:—

To be major-gens.—Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Benjamin Parrott, Bengal Staff Corps. Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Wm. C. Rich, Madras Staff Corps. Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Henry A. Hare, Madras Staff Corps. Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Thos. G. M. Lane. Madras Staff Corps. Lieut. Col, and Brevet Col. Alfred Becher, Bombay Staff Corps. Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Augustus Philip Chesshyre, Bombay Staff Corps. Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Thos. D. Ker, Bombay Infantry.

To be cols.:—Lieut. Col. Wm. Cabell, Bengal Staff Corps. Lieut. Col. Wm Blakeney, Bombay Staff Corps.

Memorandum.

Maj. and Brevet Lieut. Col. Geo. M. Billington, half-pay, late 8th Hussars, retires from the Service, receiving the value of his commission; Oct. 12, 1878.

Militia Medical Department.

Surg. Robt. Bradshaw (Leitrim) to be surg.-maj. under the Royal Warrant of July 12, 1876; March 1, 1878, such antedate not to carry back pay prior to Sept. 15, 1878.

India Office, Nov. 2.

Her Majesty has been pleased to approve of the following promotions among the Officers of the Staff Corps and Indian Military Forces made by the Governments in India:—

Brevet.

In succession to Lieut.-Gen. S. C. Briggs, Madras Staff Corps, removed to the Retired Lieut:—

To be lieut. col.—Maj. Alex. K. J. Mackenzie, Bengal Cavalry; May 2, 1878.

To be major—Capt. Frank H. B. Marsh, Bengal Infantry; May 2, 1878.

Substantive Promotions.

BENGAL STAFF CORPS

Majors to be lieut. cols.—John C. C. Daunt, V.C.; July 20, 1873. John T. Bushby; Aug. 10, 1878. John J. Boswell; Aug. 10, 1878. Hardress E. Waller; Aug. 10, 1878. (Brevet Lieut. Col.) Courtney H. S. Scott; Aug. 17, 1878. Henry Tyndall; Aug. 20, 1878.

To be majors—Capt. Charles K. Mackinnon; July 20, 1871. Capt. Wm. B. Birch; July 30, 1878. Capt. Henry H. Birch; Aug. 4, 1878. Capt. Geo. Logan: Aug. 4, 1878. Capt. Alex. D. C. Inglis; Aug. 7, 1878. Capt. Geo. Young, Aug. 20, 1878.

To be capt.—Lieut. Francis R. Begbie; July 20, 1878.

MADRAS STAFF CORPS.

To be lieut. col.—Maj. Wm. M. Frazer: Aug. 20, 1878.

To be majors—Capt. Michael A. Rowlandson; Aug. 20, 1878. Capt. Matthew C. Poole; Aug. 20, 1878.

Her Majesty has been pleased to approve of the following admission to her Majesty's Indian Staff Corps:—

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MADRAS STAFF CORPS.

To be capt.—Capt. Harvey H. Kelly, 56th Foot; May 31, 1871.

VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 12.

15th Middlesex Rifles—Lieut. Col. Lord Elcho resigns his commission. The Lord Elcho to be hon. col.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 15.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Nov. 16, 1878:—

6th Regiment of Dragoon Guards—Second Lieut. Chas. R. S. Douglas-Hamilton to be lieut., vice T. C. Porter, promoted; Oct. 5, 1878.

1st Dragoons—Lieut. Gerard V. Ames to be capt., vice E. L. Entwistle, resigned: Oct. 30, 1878.

2nd Dragoons—Sub Lieut. E. Bolton to be lieut.; Nov. 11, 1877.

8th Hussars—Sub Lieut. Thornton H. Farrer to be lieut.; Nov. 11, 1877.

17th Lancers—Sub Lieut. the Hon. Lionel H. D. Fortescue, to be lieut.; Nov. 11, 1878.

21st Hussars—Sub Lieutenant Sylvester W. Richmond to be lieut.; Nov. 11, 1877.

Royal Artillery—Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Reginald O. Farmer to be col., vice H. L. Chermside, C.B., who retires upon full-pay. Major Henry Cardew to be lieut. col., vice Brevet Col. Farmer, promoted. Capt. Thos. Burnett to be major, vice Brevet Lieut. Col. A. F. Pickard, V.C., placed upon the Seconded List; Oct. 16, 1878. Capt. Samuel H. Desborough to be maj., vice H. de S. Isaacson, who retired upon temporary half-pay; Oct. 19, 1878. Capt. and Adjt. Ashton J. Shuttleworth to be major, vice H. Cardew, promoted. Maj. Chas. E. Basevi (late Bombay), from the Super. List, to be major, vice G. H. Candy (late Bombay), to be super. to the Establishment. Capt. Fredk. E. B. Loraine, from the Seconded List, to be capt., vice Burnett, promoted; Oct. 16, 1878. Lieut. Walter Niel Jervis to be capt., vice S. H. Desborough, promoted; Oct. 19, 1878. Capt. H. D. Evans, from the Super. List., to capt., vice C. A. Empson, placed upon the Seconded List; Oct. 26, 1878. Capt. John T. Bury, from the Seconded List, to be capt., vice A. J. Shuttleworth, promoted. Lieut. David North to be capt., vice H. D. Evans, who retires, receiving a gratuity. Lt. Fredk. L. Archer to be capt., vice D. F. Jones, placed upon the Seconded List. Lieut. Charles A. Montanaro to be lieut. upon the Seconded List; Aug. 24, 1878. Lieut. Samuel G. Fairtlough to be lieut. upon the Seconded List; Oct. 18, 1871. Captain Augustus Browne to be adjt., vice V. J. Shuttleworth, promoted. Lieut. Col. and Brevet Col. Harry V. Timbrell (late Bengal) retires upon a pension. Lieut. Col and Brevet Col. Francis W. Stubbs (late Bengal) retires upon a pension. Captain Wm. B. Troup (late Bengal) upon the Seconded List, retires upon a pension. Vet.-Surg. of the First Class Henry Bath retires upon temporary half-pay. Vet.-Surg. Algernon Pitcher retires upon temporary half-pay.

7th Foot—Lieut. Wm. Conolly to be capt., vice T. J. R. Mallock, seconded for service on the Staff; Oc: 20, 1878.

13th Foot—Lieut. Frank Boyd Bradshaw to be capt., vice A. C. Cunningham, retired on a pension: Oct. 30, 1878.

15th Foot—Second Lieut. Thos. M. Bagnall to be lieut., vice W. H. Rushbrooke, seconded for service as a lieut.-instructor at the School of Musketry; Aug. 1, 1878.

17th Foot—Lieut. Matthew W. Brock to be capt., vice Brevet Maj, J. Bellamy, deceased; Oct. 20. 1878.

19th Foot—Second Lieut. John Davies to be lieut, vice H. J. Charrington, promoted: Aug. 21, 1878. Second Lieut. Charles T. Hennah to be lieut., vice G. Sharp, promoted; Sept. 26, 1878.

21st Foot—Lieut. Wm. A. Yule to be capt., vice W. A. Bridge, seconded for service on the Staff:

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Aug. 1, 1878. Lieutenant Daniel Auchlinleck to be capt., vice T. C. Rose, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Oct. 30, 1878.

35th Foot—Sub Lieut. James C. Young to be lieut.; Nov. 11, 1876.

38th Foot—Sub Lieut. Alex. G. Chesney to be lieut.; Nov. 11, 1878.

43rd Foot—Lieut. Wm. H. Sawyer to be capt., vice J. S. Langlands, seconded for service as an adjt. of Auxiliary Forces; Oct. 20, 1878.

49th Foot—Major and Brevet Lieut. Col. Wm. W. Corban to be lieut. col., vice Brevet Colonel C. FitzGerald, placed on half-pay; Oct. 30, 1878. Capt. and Brevet Maj. Alfred G. Huyshe to be maj., vice Brevet Lieut. Col. W. W. Corban; Oct. 30, 1878.

54th Foot—Lieut. Chas. G. L. Wingfield to be capt., vice C. F. Carey, resigned on appointment to the Army Pay Department; Oct. 30, 1878.

60th Foot—Lieut. the Hon. K. Turnour to be cap., vice W. J. E. Poole, retired on a pension; Oct. 30, 1878.

65th Foot—Sub Lieut. Robt. G. Iremonger, a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps, to be lieut.; Nov. 11, 1877.

70th Foot—Sub Lieut. Arthur H. Clark-Kennedy, a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps, to be lieut.; Nov. 11, 1877.

72nd Foot—Sub Lieut. Geo. L. Angelo, a probationer for the Indian Staff Corps, to be lieut.; Jan. 17, 1877, but his commission as Lieut. in the Army to bear date Nov. 11, 1876.

74th Foot—Lieut. Alaric E. A. Cross to be capt., vice E. Essez, seconded for service on the Staff; Oct. 17, 1878.

Rifle Brigade.

Capt. Geo. A. Hillyard has been seconded for service as an adjt. of Auxiliary Forces; Oct. 1, 1878.

Staff.

Maj. and Brevet Col. the Hon. James C. Dormer, half-pay, late 13th Foot, from Assist.-Adjt. and Quartermaster-Gen. at Cyprus, to be deputy adjt., and quartermaster-gen. at Malta, vice Major and Brevet Col. St. Geo. M. Nugent, half-pay, Unattached, appointed assistant-adjt. and quartermaster-gen. in North Britain.

Brevet.

Gen. Sir Chas. Trollope, K.C.B., Col. of the 53rd Foot, has been placed on the Retired List from Oct. 21, 1878, under the provisions of the Royal Warrant of May 1, 1878.

Lieut. Col. Francis W. Stubbs, Royal (late Bengal) Artillery, to be col.: May 1, 1878.

Lieut. Col. Duncan J. McGrigor, Royal (late Madras) Artillery, to be col. Oct. 8, 1878.

Col. Henry L. Chermside, C.B., Royal Artillery, to have hon. rank of major-gen upon retiring on full-pay.

Lieut. Col. and Brevet Colonel Harry V. Timbrell, Royal (late Bengal) Artillery, to have the hon. rank of major-gen. upon retiring on a pension.

Lieut. Col. and Brevet Colonel Francis Wm. Stubbs, Royal (late Bengal) Artillery, to have the hon. rank of major-gen. upon retiring on a pension.

Capt. Wm. B. Troup, Royal (late Bengal) Artillery, to have the hon. rank of maj. upon retiring on a pension.

India Office, Nov. 14.

Her Majesty has been pleased to approve of the resignation of the service of the undermentioned Officer:—

BENGAL INFANTRY.

Capt. John E. W. Howey; Oct. 15, 1878.

ARMY GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 19.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear, date Nov. 20, 1878:—

Royal Engineers—Lieut. Wm. R. Purchas to be capt., vice A. Featherstonhaugh, seconded for Staff service; Sept. 4, 1878. The surname of Lieut. Col. G. P. de P. Falconnet (late Madras) is de

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Palesieux-Falconnet, and not as hitherto stated.

Staff.

Lieut. Col. and Brevet Colonel Arthur L. Annesley, half-pay, late 11th Hussars, from Aide-de-Camp to His Royal Highness the Field Marshal Commanding-in-Chief, to be assist. adjt.-gen. at headquarters, vice Maj. and Brevet Col. Thos. D. Baker, C B., 18th Foot, appointed Military Secretary to the Viceroy of India; Nov. 1, 1878.

Brevet.

The following Officers have completed the qualifying service in the rank of Lieut. Col., to be colonels, viz:—

Lieut. Col. Amelius B. Fryers, Royal Engineers, upon Permanent Reserve List; Oct. 18, 1878.

Lieut. Col. James P. Cox, Royal Engineers, upon the Temporary Reserve List: Oct. 19, 1878.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 19.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Nov. 20, 1878:—

Artillery.

Hampshire—Capt. Lionel Tillotson, Royal Artillery, to be adjt., vice G. W. M. Turnbull, who has resigned his appointment; Nov. 4, 1878.

Kent—Second Lieutenant Hugh Mellor to be lieut.

Infantry.

Cambridge—Henry W. Hurrel, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Devon—Lieut. John James Thomson resigns his commission.

2nd, or South Devon—Henry B. Scaife, gent., to be second lieut.

5th Royal Lancashire—Captain Chas. P. Henty resigns his commission.

3rd Middlesex, or Edmonton Royal Rifles—Sub Lieut. Rawdon Hardy to be lieut.; Nov. 24, 1877, with date in the General Militia Service of Aug. 20, 1876.

4th, or Royal South Middlesex—Martin J. Lawlor, gent., to be second lieut.

Royal Elthorne, or 5th Middlesex—Capt. Fredk. H. King, 77th Foot, to be adjt., in succession to J. R. R. K. Tredennick, promoted major in the 57th Foot: Nov. 2, 1878.

2nd Somerset—The undermentioned Gents. to be second lieuts: John S. Henderson. James A. Whitla.

1st Warwick—Rollo Estouteville Grimston, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Royal Lanark—Lieut. Geo. R. Cruden to be capt.

2nd Royal Lanark—Paymaster James McGregor Hamilton, whose resignation appeared in the Gazette of Aug. 30, 1878, is granted the hon. rank of capt., and is permitted to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement; Aug. 31, 1878.

North Cork—Fredck. Francis Jennings, gent., to be second lieut.

Donegal—Quartermaster-Sergt. Alfred H. Hollis, from the 27th Foot, to be quartermaster.

Royal North Down—Wm. Baird Bowyer-Smijth, gent., to be second lieut.

Londonderry—Captain John O. Gage, 45th Foot, to be adjt., in succession to W. Pott, who has retired from the Service; Oct. 30, 1878.

Royal Meath—Second Lieut. Trevor B. Hamilton, from the Royal Dublin City Militia, to be second lieut.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Denbighshire—Capt. James R. Barnes to be maj.

Lanarkshire (Queen's Own Royal Glasgow and Lower Ward of Lanarkshire)—Capt. Wm. C. Lade resigns his commission; also is permitted to retain his rank, and to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement.

Middlesex—Sub Lieut. John E. C. Mathews to be lieut.; June 20, 1877.

Nottinghamshire (Southern Nottinghamshire)—Sub Lieut. Geo. Fellows to be lieut.: Jan. 19, 1876.

Pembroke—Sub Lieut. Ernest S. Saurin to be lieut.: Dec. 2, 1876.

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VOLUNTEER GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 19.

Where not otherwise specified, the following commissions bear date Nov. 20, 1878:—

1st Edinburgh Artillery—Geo. D. Mackay, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

4th Fifeshire Artillery—Geo. M. Stewart, gent., to be second lieut.

19th Lancashire Artillery—Lt. Richard L. Crankshaw to be capt.

1st Surrey Artillery—Lieut. Frank M. Wall to be capt.

1st Worcestershire Artillery—Lieut. Eustace O. Jackson to be capt. Lieut. Samuel Geo. Norcliffe Spofforth to be capt.

1st Cheshire Engineers—Sub Lieut. Henry H. Rounthwaite resigns his commission.

Cadet Corps attached to the 2nd Gloucestershire Engineers—E. C. Plant, Esq., to be hon. capt.

19th Aberdeenshire Rifles—Wm. F. G. Dawson, gent., to be second lieut.

1st Berkshire Rifles—Sub Lieut. Sir Matthew Wood, Bart., resigns his commission.

1st Devonshire Rifles—Major John S. Swann resigns his commission. Act. Chap. the Rev. W. C. Gibbe resigns his appointment. The Rev. Jas. G. Dangar to be act. chap.

1st Administrative Battalion Dumbartonshire Rifles—Maj. Wm. Denny resigns his commission.

10th Dumbartonshire Rifles—Capt. David Findlay resigns his commission.

14th Durham Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Lewis G. Pattinson to be lieut.; May 23, 1877.

16th Glamorganshire Rifles—Lieut. Frank M. Morgan to be capt.

2nd Administrative Battalion Herefordshire Rifles—Major Chas. Cass resigns his commission.

9th Hertfordshire Rifles—Capt. Charles Cass resigns his commission.

31st Lanarkshire Rifles—David Picken, gent., to be second lieut.

6th Lancashire Rifles—Second Lieut. John I. F. Knight resigns his commission.

7th Lancashire Rifles—Lieut. George A. D. C. Ferguson resigns his commission; Geo. A. Macbeth, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

8th Lancashire Rifles—Lieut. Henry Mann, jun., to be capt.

24th Lancashire Rifles—Second Lieut. Joseph Tertius Wood to be lieut.

9th Lincolnshire Rifles—Arthur Ellwood, gent., to be lieut.

37th Middlesex Rifles—Sub-Lieut. Henry Ellis to be lieut.; March 21, 1877. Sub-Lieut. John L. Rivolta to be lieut.: May 2, 1877. Henry Sinnet, gent, to be quartermaster.

2nd Norfolk Rifles—Capt. Wm. J. Butler resigns his commission.

18th Somersetshire Rifles—Wm. S. Daniell, gent., to be second lieut. (super.)

33rd Staffordshire Rifles—The Rev. Thos. W. Peile to be acting chaplain.

MILITIA GAZETTE.

War Office, Nov. 22.

Where not otherwise specified the following commissions bear date Nov. 23, 1878.

Engineers.

Portsmouth, Submarine Miners—Robert C. Daubuz, Esq., late Chaplain Royal Engineers, to be capt. commandant. Capt. Richard F. Croker, 1st York Militia, to be capt.

Infantry.

Royal Glamorgan — Second Lieut. Berkeley A. Bloxsome to be lieut.

Royal South Gloucester—Hedley H. Calvert, gent., to be second lieut.

5th Royal Lancashire—Sub-Lieut. Hampden F. Wilkieson resigns his commission.

2nd Middlesex or Edmonton Royal Rifle Regiment—Claude W. C. Cass, gent., to be second lieut.

2nd or East Norfolk—John E. Jameson, Esq., late Lieut. 20th Hussars, to be capt.

2nd Somerset—Edwd. T. Allen, gent., to be second lieut.

The (King's Own) 2nd Stafford—Robert S. Lambert, gent., to be second lieut.

3rd West York—Paymaster E.

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Nicholson resigns his commission, also is granted the hon. rank of Maj., and is permitted to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement.

The Edinburgh, or Queen's Regiment of Light Infantry—Capt. Douglas D. Dick resigns his commission.

Royal North Down—The appointment of Lionel T. V. Wilkinson, gent., as Second Lieut., which appeared in the Gazette of Nov. 1, 1878, is cancelled.

Royal South Down—Lionel T. V. Wilkinson, gent., to be second lieut.

The Prince of Wales' Royal Regiment of Longford Rifles—Capt. Raymond W. E. White, 27th Foot, to be adjt., in succession to W. Enderby, placed upon a retired allowance: Nov. 12, 1878.

Royal Tyrone Fusiliers—Capt. Montray V. H. Gledstanes resigns his commission.

Yeomanry Cavalry.

Buckinghamshire—Sub Lieut. Alister M. James to be lieut.; March 29, 1876.

Dorset—Capt. and Adjt. Chas. T. Griffis resigns his commission, and is placed upon a retired allowance; also is granted the hon. rank of major, and is permitted to continue to wear the uniform of the regiment on his retirement.

Montgomeryshire — Lieutenant Richard J. Edmunds resigns his commission.

North Somerset—The undermentioned Sub Lieuts. to be lieuts: —Robert P. Henry-Batten-Pool; Jan 20, 1875. Oriel F. Wallon; June 9, 1875. Vincent A. Wood; July 5, 1876.

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